



# **THE GRAMMAR DEBATE: PHILOSOPHICAL AND PEDAGOGIC GRAMMAR**

**ABSTRACT  
THESIS**

SUBMITTED FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF

**Doctor of Philosophy**  
IN  
**ENGLISH**

BY

**NASIM AKHTAR**

*Under the Supervision of*

**Dr. Md. Rizwan Khan**  
( Reader )

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH  
ALIGARH MUSLIM UNIVERSITY  
ALIGARH (INDIA)

**2006**

**THESIS**



THESIS

## ABSTRACT

Many learners of the English language may be victims of grammar with the difficult task of learning grammar. This fear experienced by them is not unwanted. The learner's experience of being taught grammar involves memorization, drills and so on. At times methods do very little to help the learner understand the language and its structure. This has led to the questioning of the pedagogic benefits of grammar study.

The role of grammar in the language curriculum has been a topic of immense debate among the teachers and academicians. This debate is something that is not a recent development, but it has been going on for decades.

The debate had been initiated in the field of language and grammar with the arrival of Plato's dialogue *Cratylus*. These issues have been debated on the basis of logic and philosophy. Greeks perceived 'grammar' as '↔ apart of logic and philosophy' Roman ignited the debate forward and many controversies of the previous age have been developed and modified.

As grammar is being debated by the grammarians, logicians, philosophers, scholars, teachers and linguists' efforts. Prescriptive

approach has been replaced by the descriptive approach. This was also one of the major controversies which have been for many years an issue for the linguists and teachers. The major drawback with the prescriptive approach is that, it was teacher-centred whereas descriptive approach was learner-centred. This is why, the people accepted it for learning/teaching programme.

De Sassure, a Swiss linguist who propounded the concept of 'structuralism' discussed very important issues like 'synchronic and diachronic', 'syntagmatic and paradigmatic' and 'langue and parole'. These concepts gave rise to various notions for the development of language and its grammar. Bloomfield who introduced the concept of Immediate Constituent Analysis (ICA) in which a sentence can be subdivided into smaller, meaningful strings. While another American linguist Noam Chomsky who put forth similar concepts like 'competence' and 'performance' compared to 'langue' and 'parole' by De Sassure. The earlier concepts were based on 'structure' while 'competence' and 'performance' was based on 'psyche' or human behaviour. His 'deep structure' and 'surface structure' show how to use and understand a language by their intuitive knowledge. Transformational-Generative Grammar was another big achievement in the field of linguistics, which emphasized how to generate structures, transform active sentences into passive ones and surface structure to deep structure.



Noam Chomsky filled the missing gap of the syntagmatic structure. Meanwhile the structuralists who diverted their minds towards behaviouristic theory by B.F. Skinner's language acquisition. But this concept became less important than the concept of 'mentalism' in addition to these notions. Dell Hymes introduced the new concept 'communicative competence' which was mainly concerned with the 'communication'.

These grammarians, linguists and scholars established grammar as an area/discipline of studies for further investigations and research and hence as a result of their work the teaching of grammar became a substitute for the teaching of a language.

However, it was the emergence of Linguistics in the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Which questioned the very scope and function of grammar and gave birth to what we call today modern grammar as opposed to the traditional grammar. Linguists questioned, not only the definition, description and function of the traditional grammar, but also its role in overall language teaching programme. In a nut-shell, the emergence of linguistics created a debate regarding the very use of grammar – traditional or modern.

For instance, Frank Cawley (1957) went to the extent of arguing that "the teaching of grammar is a waste of time", Michael West claimed

that “grammar is a corrective and preventive medicine”. The contribution of linguistics, notwithstanding, in the Indian contexts grammar still dominates the language learning and teaching programmes. It is only in the recent past (mostly in the Central Universities and Boards) that gradually it is either replaced by actual language exercises or is being taught inductively. This change is an output of the realization of the fact that the grammar teaching has largely failed to improve command over English, mainly because the grammar teaching remains confined to (often inaccurate and misleading) description, analysis and formulization of formal languages patterns. But despite this change there are still strong advocates for traditional grammar, the dominance of grammar in school curriculum and in the curriculum for competitive examinations being a case in point, in other words the debate is still on.

The present thesis consists of five chapters including Introduction and Conclusion.

In **Chapter One**, an attempt has been made to establish ‘the setting’ of the controversy. Here, this chapter introduces the manner in which grammar as a whole emerged and advanced through the ages. The various movements and schools related to the development of grammar as a formal tool in language teaching is also discussed here. The chapter, therefore, provides the setting of the grammar debate.

The opposition of the linguists against traditional grammar ignited the controversy that echoes in the language classrooms. The chapter also introduces the background of the study and rationale, and reveals the primary aims and methodology of the study employed. In other words it gives us a gist of what the study is all about.

The **Second Chapter** attempts to present the origin and development of grammar through ages., The study begins with Plato's dialogue *Cratylus* which has introduced logic based notions in the field of grammar. The present chapter basically lists the major contributions and developments with regard to grammar studies. In a nut-shell it reflects three phases of grammar studies. In early days grammar was a part of logic and philosophy, Romans adopted its tradition in two ways, one believed that grammar is a part of logic and philosophy while other considered it as a part of rhetoric. Secondly comparative and historical approach to grammar, (the 12<sup>th</sup> to 18<sup>th</sup> century), finally the concept of structuralism, introduced by De Sassure dominated on the earlier tradition. This kind of development in field of linguistics could not persist for a long time because of two more developments like functional and communicative grammar which changed the whole scenario. Halliday and Dell Hymes who motivated linguists, grammarians, teachers and learners to think about how to use language in different functions rather

than grammatical structures. Comprehensively the state of development of grammar till the present time is highlighted in this chapter.

The main objective of the chapter is to render information, listing the major contributions of the grammarians and linguists. Hence the chapter highlights the historical development of grammar through ages, as well as exhibit the reasons for studying and investigating grammar over the ages.

**Chapter Three** focuses on philosophical debate of grammar. This chapter presents the numerous philosophies, trends, concepts, and controversies, surrounding grammar at philosophical level.

Here an attempt has been made to study philosophical debate into phases – The earlier phase debates grammar at philosophical level before the emergence of modern linguistics whereas later phase debates at the same level after the emergence of modern linguistics.

In the first phase of debate at philosophical level, various opposing views, controversies at conceptual level have been debated in a chronological order beginning from Greece to Nineteenth Century. The Greeks are the cardinal part of this debate because their masters' devotion and dedication for the development of the grammar gave birth to philosophical debates.

Before the emergence of linguistics, the study of grammar at the philosophical level could be traced back to Greek notions such as logic and syllogism, Naturalist versus conventionalist, Anomaly versus Analogy. These concepts gave rise to controversies in the Roman Age which effected a change in our old assumption that grammar is a part of rhetoric rather than logic. But Greek's endeavour was not entirely undermined by the new concept of Romans. Analytical study began and enveloped whole Europe because Romans had started to analyze Latin language and its grammar with Greek. These analyses were at philosophical as well conceptual level that continued throughout.

It was only in the 18<sup>th</sup> – 19<sup>th</sup> century that the old Greek – Latin tradition was remoulded in the light of the discovery of the Indian tradition and the trends of comparative and historical linguistics of the 19<sup>th</sup> century.

The emergence of the Neo-grammarians, provided the scientific basis to historical linguistics premised on more and more data collection from actual languages, besides a series of historical events and previous trends in grammar studies that were carried over to the 20<sup>th</sup> century. What we call modern grammar is the gift of philosophy propounded by such great masters of the 1<sup>st</sup> half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century such as De Sassure, Bloomfield, Edward Sapir, and Noam Chomsky.

The most important change that was brought by these linguists was the introduction of descriptive linguistics as opposed to historical linguistics. The most prominent figure who provided the philosophical change in the outlook from the 19<sup>th</sup> to the 20<sup>th</sup> century was Ferdinand de Saussure. The terms Synchronic vs. Diachronic, Langue and Parole, Syntagmatic Vs. Paradigmatic gave a new paradigm for philosophic debate on grammar. I.C. Analysis was practiced by American structuralist L. Bloomfield to understand the syntactic structure of a language.

Later Noam Chomsky, an American linguist, brought a revolution in the field of grammar as well as in modern linguistics. He rejected earlier concepts and presented three models of grammar like Finite State Grammar, Phrase Structure Rules/Grammar, and generative grammar. Another new concept of transformation encourages all the formal approaches such as Transformational-Generative Grammar.

Noam Chomsky distinguishes transformational grammar into two structures – deep structure and surface structure. Furthermore, he puts forth concepts of competence and performance in opposition to Saussurean concept of Langue and Parole. Subsequently, Fillmore puts across the Case Grammar which was actually modified form of Chomskian notions. Halliday's functional Grammar gave way to

traditionally historical grammar and structural as well. It emphasized upon functional aspect of language rather than structural one.

**Chapter Four** showcases grammar debate at pedagogic level. This chapter tries to grasp the meaning of grammar, concepts, of pedagogic grammar and also to understand the various influences that invited the grammar debate at the level of pedagogy. An attempt has been made to discuss aspects, pertaining to grammar such as 'Traditional Vs Modern', 'prescriptive Vs descriptive', 'correctibility Vs acceptability', 'the concepts of word classes, form and function, 'use and usage'. Inductive and deductive methods of teaching are being debated, for they are still in use in schools, colleges and universities.

The debate on the place of grammar discusses the relevance of grammar teaching in English Teaching Methods (ELT). The main objective here is to put together the debatable issues that cropped up especially with respect to pedagogic grammar after the emergence of modern linguistics. It was subsequently concluded that grammar has invariably been central to language teaching programme, whether be it the phase of structuralism or that of communicative approach. Different methods of grammar teaching and their usefulness for learners and teachers have been discussed.

The present one – i.e. **Chapter Five** (Conclusion) – consists 'Summary', 'Implications' and 'Suggestions' for the further Research.

In the academic world, grammar has always been hotly debated due to dissensions among groups with regard to its purpose, extent, scope or the content of its teaching. Despite the best efforts of grammarians and linguists to minimize the debate, it proved to be ineffective in the real teaching and learning situations. As the present study takes stock of grammar debate at various levels, it could help evolve a syllabus that could be effective across the globe. For this arduous task, researchers, learners, teachers, trainers, material producers and even syllabus designers have to involve themselves to take into account actual learners' needs of the students.





# **THE GRAMMAR DEBATE: PHILOSOPHICAL AND PEDAGOGIC GRAMMAR**

**THESIS**

**SUBMITTED FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF**

**Doctor of Philosophy**  
**IN**  
**ENGLISH**

**BY**

**NASIM AKHTAR**

**Under the Supervision of**

**Dr. Md. Rizwan Khan**

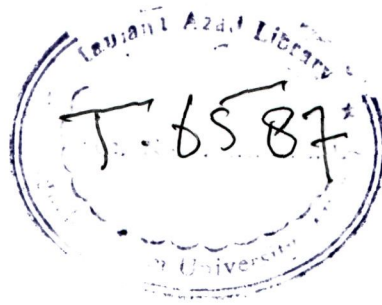
**( Reader )**



**DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH  
ALIGARH MUSLIM UNIVERSITY  
ALIGARH (INDIA)**

**2006**

**THESIS**



29 JAN 2011



T6587

*Dedicated to*

*My Parents and My Supervisor  
for guiding me to the right path.  
My Brothers, Sisters and Friends  
for their steadfast devotion and  
support.*

**Dr. Md. Rizwan Khan**  
Reader



**DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH**  
**ALIGARH MUSLIM UNIVERSITY**  
**ALIGARH – 202 002 (U.P)**  
**INDIA**

Dated: 31 August 2006

### **CERTIFICATE**

This is to certify that the thesis entitled **"The Grammar Debate: Philosophical and Pedagogic Grammar"** submitted by **Mr. Nasim Akhtar** in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of the degree of **Doctor of Philosophy in English** has been completed under my supervision.

It is further certified that Mr. Nasim Akhtar has fulfilled all conditions laid down in the Academic Ordinance with regard to the Ph.D. coursework, and that to the best of my knowledge the thesis contains his original research.

  
(Dr. Md. Rizwan Khan)  
Supervisor

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

All praises for Almighty **Allah** who helped me eternally to complete the present work. In the preparation of the present study, I have received support, help and encouragement from my teachers, friends and well wishers.

My intellectual debts are to my supervisor **Dr. Md. Rizwan Khan**, Reader, Department of English, Aligarh Muslim University, Aligarh, who has not just been my guide and mentor giving me his precious time and advice far more generously than his official duty demanded, but has also encouraged me in many ways.

I am thankful to Prof. M.M. Adnan Raza, Chairman, Department of English, A.M.U., Aligarh, who has been very kind in providing me all assistance at the department level.

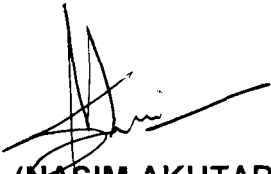
Special thanks are also due to Prof. A.R. Kidwai, Dr. Ameerullah Khan and Dr. Rashid Nehal who have helped and encouraged me during my Ph.D.

I am indebted to the Maulana Azad Library, A.M.U., Aligarh, the CIEFL Library, Hyderabad, the J.N.U. Library, New Delhi and the Seminar Library of the Department of English, A.M.U., Aligarh for their assistance.

I would like to express my gratitude to the near and dear ones. The acknowledgement will remain incomplete without my parents who consistently remained a source of inspiration and strength.

I am also thankful to Mr. Parvez Rafi for his kind cooperation in getting the relevant books in time from the seminar library.

I am sincerely beholden to Kafil Ahmad who very painstakingly typed the manuscript despite his personal engagements.



(NASIM AKHTAR)

## LIST OF FIGURES

	<b>Page No.</b>
Figure 1	Sign of Linguistics 43
Figure 2	Syntagmatic and Paradigmatic Relationship 68
Figure 3	I.C. Analysis (1 <sup>st</sup> Meaning: Young Boys and Young Girls) 71
Figure 4	I.C. Analysis (2 <sup>nd</sup> Meaning: Girls and Young Boys) 71
Figure 5	Tree Diagram 73
Figure 6	Tree Diagram 73
Figure 7	Tree Diagrams 75
Figure 8	Tree Diagram 75
Figure 9	Tree Diagram 76
Figure 10	Tree Diagram 77
Figure 11	Tree Diagram 78
Figure 12	Tree Diagram 79
Figure 13	Tree Diagram 80
Figure 14	Tree Diagram 81
Figure 15	Tree Diagram 84
Figure 16	Types of Grammar 118
Figure 17	Tree Diagram 122
Figure 18	Auxiliary segment – 1 123
Figure 19	Auxiliary segment – 2 123
Table	Comparative study between traditional and modern grammar 133

## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

ELT	-	English Language Teaching
ESL	-	English as a Second Language
EFL	-	English as a Foreign Language
LSRW	-	Listening Speaking Reading Writing
CLT	-	Communicative Language Teaching
GTM	-	Grammar Translation Method
TG	-	Transformational Grammar
GT	-	Grammar Translation
IPA	-	International Phonetic Alphabets
IGNOU	-	Indira Gandhi National Open University
CIEFL	-	Central Institute of English and Foreign Languages
JNU	-	Jawaharlal Nehru University
NP	-	Noun Phrase
VG	-	Verbal Group
ICs	-	Immediate Constituent Analysis
PS	-	Phrase Structure
PSG	-	Phrase structure grammar
TGG	-	Transformational Generative Grammar
BICS	-	Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills
CALP	-	Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency
L1	-	First Language
L2	-	Second Language
G1	-	Grammar 1
G2	-	Grammar 2
G3	-	Grammar 3



# CONTENTS

Acknowledgements	i-ii
List of Figures	iii
List of Abbreviations	iv
<b>Chapter-1 INTRODUCTION</b>	<b>1-13</b>
1.1 Background of the study	1-6
1.2 Rationale for the study / Research Objective	6-8
1.3 Significance of the study	8
1.4 Aims and Objective of the study	8-9
1.5 Methodology of the study	9-10
1.6 Organization of the study	10
<b>Chapter-2 GRAMMAR: A HISTORICAL OVERVIEW</b>	<b>14-51</b>
2.0 Introduction	14
2.1 Origin and Development of Grammar	14-46
2.1.1 The Greeks	14-22
2.1.2 The Romans	22-25
2.1.3 The Indian Tradition	25-27
2.1.4 The Middle Ages	27-35
2.1.5 The Renaissance Period	35-36
2.1.6 The Seventeenth Century	36-37
2.1.7 The Eighteenth Century	37-38
2.1.8 The Nineteenth Century	38-40
2.1.9 The Neo-Grammarians	40-41
2.1.10 The 20 <sup>th</sup> century	41-46

2.2	Summing Up	46-47
<b>Chapter-3</b>	<b>GRAMMAR DEBATE: PHILOSOPHICAL LEVEL</b>	<b>52-111</b>
3.0	Introduction	52
3.1	Grammar debate before the Emergence of Modern Linguistics	53-63
3.1.1	Logic and Syllogism	53-55
3.1.2	Naturalists Vs. Conventionalists	56-57
3.1.3	Analogy and Anomaly	57-63
3.2	Grammar debate after the Emergence of Modern Linguistics	63-105
3.2.1	The Synchronic and Diachronic Study of Languages	64
3.2.2	Langue and Parole	65-66
3.2.3	Syntagmatic and Paradigmatic	66-70
3.2.4	Immediate Constituent Analysis	70-82
3.2.5	Phrase Structure Rules	82-86
3.2.6	Transformational Generative Grammar	86-90
3.2.7	Deep Structure and Surface Structure	90-91
3.2.8	Competence and Performance	92
3.2.9	Case Grammar	92-93
3.2.10	Functional Grammar	94-96
3.2.11	Systemic Grammar	96-98
3.2.12	Prague School of Thought	99-100
3.2.13	Communicative Grammar	100-105

3.2.13.1	Speech Act Theory	102-103
3.2.13.2	Discourse Analysis	103-104
3.2.13.3	Pragmatics	104-105
3.3	Summing Up	105-107
<b>Chapter-4 GRAMMAR DEBATE: PEDAGOGIC LEVEL</b>		<b>112-179</b>
4.0	Introduction	112-113
4.1	Meaning of Grammar	113-116
4.2	Pedagogic Grammar	117-130
4.3	Debates in Pedagogic Grammar	130-148
4.3.1	Traditional Vs Modern Grammar	132-133
4.3.2	Prescriptive Vs. Descriptive	134-137
4.3.3	Correctibility vs Acceptability	137-138
4.3.4	Concepts and Categories	138-148
4.3.4.1	Parts of Speech or Word Classes	138-141
4.3.4.2	Form and Function	141-146
4.3.4.3	Use and Usage	146-147
4.3.5	Deductive and Inductive Approach	148
4.4	Place of Grammar in ELT Methods and Approaches	148-157
4.4.1	Grammar – Translation Method	149-150
4.4.2	Direct Method	150-151
4.4.3	Audio-Lingual Method	151-152
4.4.4	The Oral – Situational Language Teaching	152-153
4.4.5	Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)	153-154
4.4.6	Total Physical Response	154
4.4.7	Eclectic Approach	154-155

4.5	Components of Pedagogic Grammar	157-164
4.5.1	Organization	162
4.5.2	Locations and Indexing of Items	162-163
4.5.3	Contextualization	163-164
4.6	Debate on the Relevance of Grammar Teaching in ELT	164-171
4.7	Summing Up	171-172
<b>Chapter-5</b>	<b>CONCLUSION</b>	<b>180-186</b>
5.0	Introduction	180
5.1	Summary	180-184
5.2	Pedagogical Implications	184
5.3	Suggestions for the Further Research	185-186
	Bibliography	187-196

# **CHAPTER – 1**

# **CHAPTER-1**

## **INTRODUCTION**

### **1.0 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY**

The term “grammar” is derived from the Greek root, ‘Grammatike techne’ which may be translated as the “Art of writing”.

The meaning and the scope of grammar was later developed by the detailed studies, through centuries, by such grammarians as Plato, (5<sup>th</sup> Century BC), Panini (5<sup>th</sup> Century BC), Aristotle (3<sup>rd</sup> Century BC), Dionysius Thrax (1<sup>st</sup> Century BC), Alexandrians (1<sup>st</sup> Century BC), Varro (1<sup>st</sup> Century BC), work of Cicero and Virgil in Latin, Donatus (4<sup>th</sup> Century AD, Latin), Priscian (6<sup>th</sup> Century AD, Latin), Aelfric (11<sup>th</sup> Century AD, Latin) and many others. These grammarians established grammar as a discipline/an area of studies for further investigations and research. In fact as a result of their work the teaching of grammar largely became a substitute for the teaching of a language.

However, it was the emergence of linguistics in the 20<sup>th</sup> century, which questioned the very scope and function of grammar and gave birth to what we call today modern grammar as opposed to the traditional grammar. Linguistics questioned not only the definition, description and function of the traditional grammar, but also its role in the overall language teaching programme. In a nut-shell, the emergence of linguistics created a debate regarding the very use of grammar traditional or modern. For instance, while Frank Cawley (1957) went to the extent of arguing that “the teaching of grammar is a waste of time”, Michael West (1952) claimed that “grammar is a preventive and corrective medicine”. The contribution of linguistics, notwithstanding, in the Indian context, grammar still dominates the language learning and teaching programmes. It is only in over the last three to four decades (mostly in the Central Universities and Boards) that gradually it is either replaced by actual language exercises or is being taught inductively. This change is an output of the realization of the fact that the grammar teaching has largely failed to

improve command over English, mainly because the grammar teaching remains confined to (often inaccurate and misleading) the description and analysis of formal language patterns. But despite this change there are still strong advocates for traditional grammar and hence grammar still dominates the school curricula. Such a dominance is evident of the fact that the grammar debate is still continued.

English came to India almost three centuries ago along with the British traders. Even after more than fifty years of independence, English continues to serve as a major link language, library language and window to the world. Neither Hindi, the Official National Language, nor any of the other regional languages has risen in status, and is yet to substitute the all-encompassing influence of the English language in the socioeconomic and educational arenas.

Krishnaswamy and Sriraman (1995:50) rightly points out that

Macaulay might have thought that the knowledge of English was essential for civilizing Indians, earlier generations might have thought English was necessary for the shaping of character or the development of aesthetic sense, but the present generation is convinced that English is needed for mobility and social and economic advancement. English is the language of opportunities because it takes one outside one's own community to places (within or outside India) where more opportunities are available for professional and economic growth. That is why there is a greater demand for English; it has a lot of 'surrender value' and teachers might want to cash on it.

Krishnaswamy and Sriraman (1995:50-51) further state that

English not only gives us information in every conceivable branch of knowledge, it also has the power to change the world that changes us. However, it is important to note that English is the language, not of Westernization but modernization.

Thus, the importance of the English language since the colonial phase till date has remained consistent. Due to this status of English, the teaching and learning of English has always been of prime importance for a long time. English, like other second languages, was taught through the Grammar

Translation Method. Everyone seemed fairly clear about what should be taught and in what order. The result was that language learners understood a good deal about how the target language was constructed. When new methods and approaches emerged with the coming of linguistics and its applied disciplines, they belittled the utility of so much of grammar in ELT and attacked the effectiveness of grammar in GT Method in the name of new expectations, such as 'fluency', 'language use' and other new concepts.

With these drawbacks the Grammar-Translation Method came under immense criticism. Hence new language teaching methods emerged with new shape and size of grammar. What is important is that such replacements with regard to the extent, role and scope of grammar in English language programmes were not final, rather they generated consistent debate on these issues relating grammar. In the latter chapters we shall see that grammar, to the ancients, basically meant an area of study relating language, rhetoric and philosophy, which was used for interpreting literary texts rather than as a tool for language teaching

It was not until the Middle Age that grammarians became interested in languages other than their own. The scientific grammatical analysis of language began in the 19th century with the realization that languages have a history. This resulted in the genealogical classification of languages through Comparative Linguistics. Moreover, grammatical analysis was further developed in the 20th century and was greatly advanced by the theories of Structural Linguistics and Transformational-Generative Grammar. The advancement in the theories of language resulted in numerous complications with regard to the teaching and role of grammar in the language curriculum. Thus, the definition of grammar and the reality of its existence in our language are neither simple nor easily definable. Grammar, by now, is used more as a tool for language learning and teaching.

The establishment of the school of linguistics led to the questioning of the traditional method used in the teaching of language. Initially, languages were taught using the traditional method of teaching grammar. The teaching of grammar was the main focus and everyone (both teachers and students)



seemed fairly clear about what should be taught and in what order. The result was that language learners understood a good deal about how the target language was constructed, but had little idea of how it was pronounced or used in ordinary conversation. The other drawback to this approach was that it took a very long time to master the new language system, so it was not suitable for learners with a short period of time at their disposal. All these reasons led to the questioning of whether the teaching of grammar was actually helping in improving the language proficiency of the learner. Likewise different styles of teaching equate the varying opinions on how it should be taught, if indeed it should or can be taught.

Rothschild (2006) presents views as in the paper "The Great Grammar debate."

Linguists have, for years, been arguing over whether the "rules" of language are fixed or dynamic, and educational theorists have toiled in a parallel circle, over how it should be taught..

Cameron (1995) observes in this regard:

Linguists can generally be divided into two groups: "prescriptivists", or those who hold that language is set in by fixed rules, and "descriptivists", or those who believe that language is a dynamic entity that evolves from the cracks and patterns of actual usage.

In Nunberg's (1983) opinion:

There was a time, not so long ago, when the prescriptivists were the ostensible monarchy of the grammar kingdom in the United States; a time when everyone seemed fairly clear about what should be taught and in what order"

(Finegan 1980) puts on record the mixed response about grammar teaching:

Verbs in all their complexity dominated the scene, and conjugations and inflections were learned by repeating everything until you threw up. The result was that while many grammarians-to-be understood a good deal about how English was constructed, many also found writing to be a tiresome and confusing process that did little more than tease the boundaries of sanity.

Milroy (1991) states that

Grammatical supremacy, consequently, gave way to a "stimulus-response system" in which learners memorized a catalog of responses to certain prompts that mirrored situations outside the classroom".

Finegan (1980) clarifies

Grammar from this direction is not analyzed in the classroom, but, in theory, enters the consciousness by some mysterious osmosis. Unfortunately it also fails to equip students to produce original utterances of their own. Clearly this method is not adequate for an in-depth acquisition of the language, and, consequently, not adequate for teaching anyone the explicit rules of grammar. The failure of this method led to the development of a third method, frequently referred to as the "cognitive approach".

Under this method students are introduced to patterns of "correct" language, which, after enough time, promises to eventually enable them to deduce the rules for themselves. Cameron (1995) refers

Our new linguistic kings assured the world that the element of discovery within this process somehow "made language learning exciting" and the grammar easier to assimilate than anything simply learned by repetition.

However, this approach too is not without its share of flaws. The problem with this method is that it, too, has allowed noticeable gaps in acquisition. Many students who learn through pattern association can create original, well-formed sentences based on the rules, yet, many still produce language that is idiomatically incorrect. For instance, an example (quoted from Anderson 1990) that critics of the cognitive approach frequently refer to is often heard "excuse me, have you got fire?" in place of "have you got a light?"

Yet it is due to the preponderance of idiomatic incongruity like the one aforementioned that prescriptive battle-cries have grown in force and frequency, over the last several years, forcing the heavy artillery of the

descriptivist to roll in on the defensive: "Correctness is less important than the effectiveness of the message" (Andersson 1990).

In other words, it doesn't matter even if a student speaks wrong grammar, but enables to get the message across.

Being objective about grammar is difficult because of the personal experiences we all carry with us. Those individuals who suffered through formulaic grammar memorization classes, for example, may in fact support the process because they now have the specifics of the rules embedded in their psyche.

Similarly, the second set of individuals who have learned through osmosis may also support their method of instruction, because while they cannot point to a sentence and diagram down to its molecular structure they tend to have "a feeling" when something is wrong and when something is right. Moreover, they do not waste time hovering over minor technical inconsistencies, but instead just write and read and enjoy the language for what it is. Thus, the grammar debate continues. The fight for selecting the better method for the teaching of a language goes on with grammarians settled into different schools of thought.

## **1.1 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY / RESEARCH OBJECTIVE**

With the world turning into a global village and English becoming more or less a universal language. English is used by a large number of people for a variety of purposes and functions. Legal, educational, business, finance, communications, and many others. English is now an indispensable instrument necessary for the socio-economic development of the country. It occupies a prominent place among the languages used in India for several reasons. As stated above, it is a library language and much of the literature pertaining to developments in science and communication, arts, social sciences, philosophy etcetera are reported in English. Gupta and Kapoor (1991:19) refer Moreover,

it is recognized as an essential component of formal education, and as the preferred medium of learning, with specialized education, and as the preferred medium of education; it is recognized and upheld as a mark of

education, culture, and prestige. The polity and society confer great value on the learning of English knowing bi-multi-linguals.

For the last several decades, the teaching of grammar in schools has been the subject of much debate and criticism. There are some people who believe that there is no correlation between the teaching of grammar and improvement in the English language as such. Just as swimming is learnt, not by mastering the rules, but by actually jumping into water. Similarly, a language is learnt not by learning its rules, but by using it. The theory that knowledge of grammar helps a person to speak or write correct English is also debatable.

According to Kittson (1920, cited in Kohli, 1999: 138)

The notion that the grammatical mistakes made by a learner are due to the lack of grammatical knowledge is wholly false. This is often curiously illustrated in examination where a candidate will, not infrequently, gain marks in one section of the paper by stating a grammatical rule correctly and a little further on break the same rule in his composition.

Frank Cawley in 1957 during his fieldwork, collected data of over 1,000 secondary pupils in Manchester and concluded on the basis of an experiment. In the words of Kohli (1999:138)

teaching of grammar is a waste of time. Although the students could do grammar exercises correctly, yet they did not make use of their knowledge of these points in their own writing.

With so much controversy and complexity surrounding the use of grammar in the teaching of English, it is imperative to investigate into the debate pertaining to the teaching of grammar. In the wake of all these criticisms and oppositions on choosing the right mode of teaching English, the present study attempts to enter into the domain of both sides of the argument. This is significant because the Indian experience of the teaching of grammar is also very similar to the experience faced in the United Kingdom. While teaching language, a lot of time (nearly one third) is spent on teaching

grammar. Besides so much advancement in the new ways of teaching English, it remains a fact that our learners lack the proficiency in meeting the growing demands of the present day workplace competencies. As Khan (1999:02) details the different studies of different people of the world. He says:

several studies carried out in Libya (Robinson:1985), Saudi Arabia (Roe :1980), Sudan (Andrews :1984), Iraq (Taufiq:1984), Egypt (El-Said :1984), Tunisia (Heimissi: 1984), Oman (Adams Smith :1984) and Jordan (Zoughoul: 1985) mark the continuity of concern in this direction. ESL research even in Britain and America, especially after the advent of 'Communicative'. Pedagogy has been playing increasing attention to the problem of faculty views and student perceptions as a basis for ESL planning and decision making.

## **1.2 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

The emergence of English as a universal link language and the power of the language to broaden an individual's job opportunities have resulted in the mushrooming of a large number of establishments that promise to teach fluent English. A lot of people ultimately end up getting admitted in such establishments and institutes. At the same time the situation in the education system in India is in need of an overhaul, because even today majority of learners, despite years of learning English, are still not capable of forming grammatically correct sentences.

As a consequence, through the study of the debate about the use of grammar in teaching English or for that matter any second language, an attempt will be made to understand the arguments generated by the two warring groups and suggestions will be made at the end of the study. These suggestions are in no circumstances solutions to the debate, but will serve as an investigation into the problem.

## **1.3 AIMS AND OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY**

This thesis is an attempt to look into the raging grammar debates. The study commences with the evolution of grammar and its expansion through the different ages. The different opinions and views formulated by numerous grammarians, academicians and linguists resulted in the establishment of

formal rules about language usage. Moreover, with the advent of written representations, formal rules about grammar rules were reinforced. Thus, the main focus of the study is the debate that arises out of the establishment and development of grammar. The study discusses the controversy that emerges out of the gulf created by the teaching of grammar in the learning of language. The fight among grammarians, linguists and academicians is that prescriptive grammars do not have any justification beyond their authors' aesthetic tastes.

This thesis attempts to look at the controversy by situating it at the philosophical level and the pedagogic levels. The study discusses the numerous issues regarding grammar at both the levels. Besides, the modern grammarians' opposition to Traditional Grammar is also presented in the study. The works of important Traditional Grammarians such as Varro, Cicero, Virgil, Donatus, Priscian, P. Helias and P. Hispanus are also discussed. The different concepts of speculative grammar and concept of universalism which were the products of these philosophers are hence highlighted. . The Transformational-Generative grammar introduced by Noam Chomsky provided a new paradigm for the study of language. The debate emerges from the method of teaching that employs grammar.

Thus, this thesis focuses on the great grammar debate and the controversy surrounding the study of grammar. The issue about whether the solution lies with the method promoted and practiced by philosophical grammarians or pedagogical grammarians. The aim of the study is not to solve the problem but to look at the two opposing sides and suggest some methods which can be useful for the teaching of grammar in the language curriculum.

#### **1.4 METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY**

The methodology employed for the present study discusses the problem and the different views generated by different grammarians, academicians, linguists and others at various levels. The study emerges with the discussion of the origin of grammar and the numerous stages of its development through the ages. Such a discussion is essential in order to get

to the root of the problem. Moreover, an understanding of the term and origin of grammar would help in the better perception of the grammar debate.

The study also investigates into the different contrary views generated at the philosophical and at the pedagogic levels. It focuses on the salient features of the different ages starting from the Greece to the 20<sup>th</sup> century. The conflict between Traditional and Modern grammar, different approaches to the language teaching is also analyzed. What role does grammar play in real life situations, here, the approach undertaken is to dissect the different parts of grammar and look into each aspect of it.

### **1.5 ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY**

The research covers three main issues viz. **origin and development of grammar; grammar debate at the philosophical level and grammar debate at the Pedagogic level.** However, the study has been organized into five chapters. The first chapter introduces the background to the study and the rationale, aims, methodology employed. In other words it gives us a gist of what the study is all about.

The second chapter intends to furnish a historical overview of the origin and development of grammar.

The third chapter will provide the debate on grammar at philosophical level. The chapter will basically review the various concepts, philosophies, theories and approaches that emerged over the centuries. It will also refer to some major debates at the philosophical level relating language in general and grammar in particular.

The fourth chapter will present debates on grammar at pedagogic level. The different arguments pertaining to language teaching such as Inductive versus deductive, form versus function, use vs. usage, different approaches and methods will be scrutinized in this chapter.

The fifth chapter is the conclusion where the finding of the study is discussed. However, the results of the study are in no way suggestive of solution to the problem of the grammar debate. It only suggests ways in which the complexity surrounding the grammar debate can be better understood.

## REFERENCES

1. Krishnaswamy, N. & T. Sriraman (1995) *Teaching Spoken English and Communication Skills*, T.R. Publishers, Madras.
2. Krishnaswamy, N. & T. Sriraman (1995) *Teaching Spoken English and Communication Skills*, T.R. Publishers, Madras.
3. Rothschild, M. (2006) "The Great Grammar Debate" in ([www.thejubileeacademy.org](http://www.thejubileeacademy.org)) The Jubilee Academy, The Premier Pre K-12 Christian Homeschooling Academy:
4. Cameron, Deborah. (1995) "Verbal Hygiene" In "The Great Grammar Debate". Part-I by Mimi Rothschild. The Jubilee Academy, The Premier Pre K-12 Christian Homeschooling Academy:  
  
([http://www.thejubileeacademy.org/articles/academic\\_resources/reading/the\\_great\\_grammar\\_debate/](http://www.thejubileeacademy.org/articles/academic_resources/reading/the_great_grammar_debate/) )
5. Nunberg, Geoffrey (1983) *The Atlantic Monthly*, December; *The Decline of Grammar*, Volume 252, No. 6; Pages 31-46. In *The Great Grammar Debate*. Part-I by Mimi Rothschild. The Jubilee Academy, The Premier Pre K-12 Christian Homeschooling Academy:  
  
([http://www.thejubileeacademy.org/articles/academic\\_resources/reading/the\\_great\\_grammar\\_debate/](http://www.thejubileeacademy.org/articles/academic_resources/reading/the_great_grammar_debate/) )
6. Finegan, Edward (1980) *Attitudes toward Language usage*. In "The Great Grammar Debate". Part-I by Mimi Rothschild. The Jubilee Academy, The Premier Pre K-12 Christian Homeschooling Academy:  
  
([http://www.thejubileeacademy.org/articles/academic\\_resources/reading/the\\_great\\_grammar\\_debate/](http://www.thejubileeacademy.org/articles/academic_resources/reading/the_great_grammar_debate/) )
7. Milroy, James, and Milroy, Lesley (1991): *Authority in Language*. In "The Great Grammar Debate". Part-I by Mimi Rothschild. The Jubilee Academy, The Premier Pre K-12 Christian Homeschooling Academy:



[\(http://www.thejubileeacademy.org/articles/academic\\_resources/reading/the\\_great\\_grammar\\_debate/\)](http://www.thejubileeacademy.org/articles/academic_resources/reading/the_great_grammar_debate/)

8. Finegan, Edward (1980) *Attitudes toward Language usage*. In "The Great Grammar Debate". Part-I by Mimi Rothschild. The Jubilee Academy, The Premier Pre K-12 Christian Homeschooling Academy:  
[\(http://www.thejubileeacademy.org/articles/academic\\_resources/reading/the\\_great\\_grammar\\_debate/\)](http://www.thejubileeacademy.org/articles/academic_resources/reading/the_great_grammar_debate/)
9. Cameron, Deborah. (1995) "*Verbal Hygiene*" In "*The Great Grammar Debate*". Part-I by Mimi Rothschild. The Jubilee Academy, The Premier Pre K-12 Christian Homeschooling Academy:  
[\(http://www.thejubileeacademy.org/articles/academic\\_resources/reading/the\\_great\\_grammar\\_debate/\)](http://www.thejubileeacademy.org/articles/academic_resources/reading/the_great_grammar_debate/)
10. Anderson, Lars G., and Peter Trudgill.(1990) "*Bad Language.*" In: "The Great Grammar Debate". Part-II by Mimi Rothschild. The Jubilee Academy, The Premier Pre K-12 Christian Homeschooling Academy:  
[\(http://www.thejubileeacademy.org/articles/academic\\_resources/reading/the\\_great\\_grammar\\_debate - part ii/\)](http://www.thejubileeacademy.org/articles/academic_resources/reading/the_great_grammar_debate_-_part_ii/)
11. Anderson, Lars G., and Peter Trudgill.(1990) "*Bad Language.*" In: "The Great Grammar Debate". Part-II by Mimi Rothschild. The Jubilee Academy, The Premier Pre K-12 Christian Homeschooling Academy:  
[\(http://www.thejubileeacademy.org/articles/academic\\_resources/reading/the\\_great\\_grammar\\_debate - part ii/\)](http://www.thejubileeacademy.org/articles/academic_resources/reading/the_great_grammar_debate_-_part_ii/)
12. Gupta R.S, and Kapil Kapoor, eds. (1991) *English in India: Issues and Problems*. Delhi Academic Foundation, Delhi.
13. Kittson, E.C. (1920) *Language Teaching*. In Kohli, A.L (repnt.) (1999) *Techniques of Teaching English*, Dhanpat Rai Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd. New Delhi India.

14. Cawley, Frank (1957). In Kohli, A.L (repnt.) (1999) *Techniques of Teaching English*, Dhanpat Rai Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd. New Delhi India.
15. Khan, M. Rizwan (1999) *Policy and Provision for ESL. In India's Higher Education: An Empirical Case Study Of 'Needs' And 'Means' Analysis*. Natraj Publishing House, Karnal, India.

# **CHAPTER – 2**

## CHAPTER-2

### GRAMMAR: A HISTORICAL OVERVIEW

#### 2.0 INTRODUCTION

The present chapter intends to study the origin and development of 'grammar' through the ages. It is proposed to list the contributions with regard to grammar studies made by major grammarians and linguists of the world through centuries and civilizations.

#### 2.1 ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF GRAMMAR

Dykema (1961) cited in Nancy, G. Patterson (1999: 1) "The Role of Grammar in the Language Arts Curriculum"

The origin of the word grammar can be traced to the Greek *gramma*, or letter, as in an alphabetic letter. This is a development of the word *graphein* which means to *draw* or *write*. The plural form of the word is *grammata* which evolved at one point to mean the rudiments of writing, and eventually to mean the rudiments of learning. Eventually the adjective form of the word, *grammatike*, was combined with *techne* and meant the "Art of knowing one's letters."

The first attempt to study grammar began in about 5<sup>th</sup> century B.C. with Plato's dialogue *Cratylus* and in 4<sup>th</sup> century B.C in India with Panini's grammar of Sanskrit. Later, the Romans approached the study of grammar for the study of their own language. At this stage grammar was mainly learnt and taught as a tool for the analysis of the languages used for producing and for analyzing literatures, or even for deciphering the rules of ancient languages of the holy books. Grammar was initially studied as a part of philosophy, logic and rhetoric. This can be evidenced in the following discussion on the Greek masters and their followers among Romans and the Medieval grammarians until the 17<sup>th</sup> and the 18<sup>th</sup> centuries:

##### 2.1.1 The Greeks

The study of grammar was initiated by the Ancient Greeks. They started to study grammar as a tool by which they could understand their own

language. In those days, even common people were keenly interested in knowing the internal structure of language. They wanted to make it more practical not only in spoken form, but also in their writing. Plato, Aristotle, Apollonius, and Dionysius Thrax are such names who contributed remarkably in the development of the Greek grammar. Plato's ideas were based on logic, while Aristotle modified the study of grammar and gave a new idea of syllogism and Dionysius Thrax attempted a technical definition and structure of language. Mc Arthur, (1991:41) observes:

The Greeks thus developed their practical interest in grammar while learning to commit Homeric and other material to a paper. There were many individuals, highly interested in such things as grammar, philosophy, logic, rhetoric and literature, who ran into each other. It took time for distinct concepts to emerge, as these pioneers struggled to create theories and terminologies without much in the way as precedents to help them. Their efforts can not be measured by twentieth-century yardsticks which enticingly allow us to make judgments in our own favour. Plato, Aristotle and their successors often took their theories from the abyss, to build the intellectual foundation on which we still stand today.

The Greeks in general, and the Alexandrians in particular, developed grammar to understand the meaning of languages through categorization and classification in order to preserve the purity of language. The Greek masters were so wholesome and remarkable that one is tempted to study some of their contributions in this chapter.

#### **2.1.1.1 Plato**

The study of grammar began with Plato's dialogue *Cratylus* (5<sup>th</sup> Century BC). But Platonic views on language have also been found in his creation the *Theatetus* and *Sophists*. These were the dialogues which were put together in the above compilation. Dinneen (1967: 76) makes the following observations about Plato's contribution:

In these dialogues he was more concerned about the relation of thought, language, and the things talked about than the etymology of individual expressions. He saw that just as some things in nature can go together and others can not, so too certain words can be correctly combined and other can not. He appeared to see the reason for this

in the conventional restrictions of language, in the way we think about things, and in the nature of the things themselves. He was interested, therefore, in finding some way of describing correct combinations that would lead to true statements or definitions. His attempt to establish a discipline that could deal with such rules was a first attempt to found a formal logic, that is, a system by which we can tell whether combinations are correct or not merely by inspecting the relations among the terms used. He did not distinguish sufficiently among the various sources of limitations on linguistic constructions (grammatical, stylistics, truth-functional), but he did not devise a technique that leads later to the formulation of syllogistic rules.

This kind of logical rules were of course a new invention by Plato, though it was quite difficult for the common mass. It needs much information to understand, but it was the only factor by which Plato was appreciated in making language cohesive. These views on the language and logic based rules of grammar have been viewed in the dialogues like *Theateus* and *Cratylus*. These dialogues were a valuable notions by which a language can be systematic and cohesive.

Plato believed that language thoughts must be combined and cohesive by the logical rules. He did not emphasise on the cohesion and connectivity of the thoughts, but relations of thoughts have been compared with nature. He thought, that if nature can be systematic why not words can be correctly combined. Later there were many dichotomies/ terms on which they (Plato and Aristotle) agreed. There were three such kinds of terms which have been necessary for the description of the language.

Plato and Aristotle both agreed on the three terms, like *onoma*, *rhema* and *logos* as quoted in Mc Arthur, (1991:48)

1. The *onoma* or 'name', translated into Latin as the *nomen*, and (as examples of present-day usage) into French as *le nom* and into English as *the noun*.
2. The *rhema*, translatable as 'what is spoken', 'word', 'saying', 'phrase', 'predicate', and a number of other concepts. It was

differentiated from the '*onoma*' by its having a time reference (that is, 'times' or 'tenses'). In English it is *the verb*.

3. The logos, one of the most important terms in Greek thought generally translatable as a whole spectrum of modern concepts, including, 'word', 'speech', 'statement', 'reason', 'report', 'narrative' and, in plural form, 'prose'.

For the grammarian-logicians of the ancient world, however, it was a composite made up of *onomata*, *rhemata*, and *syndesmoi*, a general class of particles roughly corresponding to 'conjunctions'. What is today called a *sentence* in English.

The logos worked hard in ancient times. In its philosophical aspect it lies at the root of whole science of 'logic' as well as innumerable modern '-ologies' ('biology', 'geology', etc.). It is present in 'analogy', 'syllogism', 'logistics', 'dialogue' etc.

Dinneen (1967:78) observes "Plato seems to have distinguished for the first time the *onoma* and *rhema* as the constituents of *logos*". It was the effect of the predecessor (Sophists) who already had discussed the logical and lexical constituents of a sentence. Plato who distinguished '*onoma*' from '*rhema*' based it not on grammar, but who distinguished '*onoma*' from '*rhema*' was not a grammatical distinction, but a lexical. After all distinction, he could not distinguish grammar and logic. Plato presented some traditional concepts of grammar but were not technical. It was totally logic based. So after a very short time he failed to get popularity and acceptance he tried to give a standard and modified he tried to give a standard and modified shape to language and many philosophers of that time appreciated greatly his logic regarding grammar. Collinge (1990:787) states in this regard that "Plato was the earliest European thinker to ponder on the fundamental problems of language". About the heat ignited by Plato's concepts, Jindal and Syall (1998:39) claim that:

Plato's *Cratylus* (427-347 BC) was concerned with the origin of words (Etymology) and gave rise to a controversy between analogists, who believed that language was regular and based on logic (Plato was an Analogist) and

Anomalists, who believed that properties of things were not related to the words used to name them, and that there was a great deal of irregular change taking place in words (this viewpoint was held by the Stoic school of philosophers in Greece).

This kind of thinking changed their mind from the traditional trends. They tried to give a systematic arrangement to language so that they could study the language systematically. These kinds of trends left a nice impact on philosophers and logicians of that age. They developed then thoughts with the help of previous knowledge and introduced new philosophy and logical explanations to the Greek language. Apart from these concepts, they paid a good deal of attention towards etymology and phonetics. These areas were adopted by his pupil, Aristotle, who further developed and reorganized his master's views regarding grammar.

#### **2.1.1.2 Aristotle**

Aristotle, the pupil of Plato, modified his master's thought. In the words of Dinneen (1967:79):

He saw several levels on which language can be studied and distinguished the forms of words and of sentences, the meaning of words in isolation and in constructions, and differences between the written and spoken styles of language.

The Greeks were mainly concerned with the nature of language. There were many views regarding language, some believed that language is based on convention while others think that it has been inherited from the nature. This kind of debate and controversies impelled the Greeks to think a language minutely. There were many parts of speech and rules of grammar, are used now in the schools but a modified and developed shape.

Aristotle and Plato both agreed on the terms like *onoma*, *rhema* and *logos*.

Aristotle maintained this distinction, but added a third class of syntactic component, the *syndesmoi*, a class covering what were later to be distinguished as conjunctions (and probably prepositions, though this is not apparent from the examples cited) the article, and pronouns. This tripartite analysis of the sentence was probably intended to distinguish the components of the declarative statement in



which as a logician Aristotle was most interested and which he defined as basic. Aristotle additionally gave a formal definition of the word as a linguistic unit: a component of the sentence, having a meaning of its own but not further divisible into meaningful units. For example, he defined *onoma* name, noun, as 'a sound sequence having a meaning by convention without any temporal reference.

(Robins R.H. 1997:32-33)

While Plato divided these components *onoma* and *rhema* verbal components have

Made a grammatical distinction underlying syntactic analysis and word classification in all future European linguistic description.

(Robin 1997:32)

Later, Aristotelian usage has covered main grammatical relevant which led to the descriptive approach. He defined 'word', 'sentence', 'cases of nouns', 'different forms of superlative and comparative degree', 'forms of adjectives', 'adverbs', etc. These were not analyzed on the basis of grammar mode, but on logic. All these terms, concepts and analyses by Aristotle were reanalyzed and modified by the Stoics – (a group of philosophers in Greece).

These philosophers, made changes in the Aristotle's notions on different language perspectives. They made a nice distinction between logical and grammatical study of language.

### **2.1.1.3 Stoics**

In the words of Dineen (1967:88):

The Stoics was a group of philosophers and logicians who flourished from about the beginning of the fourth century B.C. The last notable author in the Stoics tradition was the Roman Emperor Marcus Aurelius, who reigned from A.D. 160 to 180. In their logical work the Stoics were the chief opponents of Aristotle's successors, who were called Peripatetic logicians.

Stoics were the first to concentrate exclusively on language and hence paid much attention to the development of descriptive analysis of Greek and its Grammar. They wanted to develop and were very eager to make a

refinement of grammar and its theories. For this they had to depend on Aristotle. Their contribution is most precisely briefed by Robins (1997:34-35)

The Aristotelian system of word classification and grammatical categories was further articulated by the Stoics in two directions: the number of word classes was increased; and more precise definitions and additional grammatical categories were introduced to cover the morphology and part of the syntax of these classes. Later writers saw the developing word class system as the progressive subdivision of the previous one: It seems that the Stoics proceeded in three stages. First among Aristotle's *syndesmoi* the inflected members (later pronoun and article) were separated jointly as *arthra* literally 'joint' from the invariant uninflected members to which alone the term *syndesmoi* was applied (the later preposition and conjunction); second, Aristotle's *onoma* was divided into proper noun to which the term *onoma* was applied and common noun *porsegoria* and third, from within this the class of adverbs was split off and named *mesotes* literally 'those in the middle' perhaps because they belonged syntactically with verbs mostly associated morphologically with noun stems.

The Stoics made a distinction between the logical and the grammatical. Later on, they presented an explicit view on logic and grammar. They worked hard in this area and their main motto was to give purity to language. They examined the sound system, parts of speech and forms and meaning among various aspects of language. The stoics were highly influenced by speech sounds. Earlier Aristotle also discussed about speech, but could not give a pattern. But the Stoics were highly interested in doing something in this area. They studied sounds and gave the 'Twenty Four letters' of the Greek language. What we call parts of phonology, the umbrella under which we study sounds. Firstly they introduced four (4) parts of speech but after sometime they invented one more and so finally it came to be five (05). These changes misled the Greeks who were busy in translation. They faced lots of problems after this change. After all logical and grammatical expressions, they were not fully satisfied with present forms of language. So they looked for the original forms, the root and 'etyma' of the present expression of language. This analytical study is known as Etymology. The Stoics were totally based on Aristotelian views, but they modified and analyzed to make a more advanced

study. Robins (1997:36) sums up the Stoics's philosophy in the following manner:

'Stoics' linguistic works went on throughout Antiquity among the members of this Stoics philosophical schools; but in the history of linguistics, the changes made by Alexandrian scholars in the Stoic positions brought the subject, more particularly in its grammatical aspects, to the state in which the later Latin grammarians, and through them the European tradition, took it over.

#### **2.1.1.4 Dionysius Thrax**

In the study of language/grammar, the name of Dionysius Thrax occupies a very significant place. This is so because of his major contribution and also as a member of the Alexandrian school of thought in Egypt, popularly known as Alexandrians. The Alexandrians in the first century B.C. were the followers of Aristotle and hence advocated his idea of grammar. Alexandrians were highly concerned with grammar because they wanted to see the purity of language. Dionysius Thrax of Alexandria analyzed literary texts in terms of letters, syllables, and eight parts of speech in his treatise called '*The Art of Grammar*', He introduced the concept of analytical study based on which many literary texts were analyzed after him. Dinneen (1967:401) states that

The formal approach to the study of grammar (which) was found first in the works of Dionysius Thrax, whose pioneering approach shows the characteristics of all scientific work on language. This grammar was formal (only the conjunctions were defined on the basis of extra-linguistic criteria alone), and its stated aims included the search for the analogies (the intra linguistic regularities) of Greek.

So, we cannot deny the fact that his work was on different aspects of language. Dionysius Thrax's analogies became more powerful and it was more popular among the scholars and students. His definitions, elements of language, parts of speech and his analytical works are of equal importance. He provided much strength to the Greek language and the discipline of

grammar studies. Thrax thus became the pillar for Greeks in particular and grammarians in general.

#### **2.1.1.5 Apollonius**

Apollonius further strengthened the study in Greek grammar. Some of this major contributions are grammar classes, grammatical rules and parts of speech (addition from noun to preposition). His belief was that grammarians should divert from the traditional, formal distinctions towards semantic categories.

#### **2.1.2 The Romans**

The study of grammar began with the ancient Greek, but its various aspects were brought to the fore by the Roman grammarians. The Greek and Roman grammarians described two very similar language-classical Greek and Classical Latin. They also used technical terms for the description of other language. The Roman grammarians were great followers of the Greek grammar and launched speculative approaches to language. David Crystal (1997:409) states:

Roman writers largely followed Greek precedents and introduced a speculative approach to the language. On the whole, in their descriptive work on Latin, they used Greek categories and terminology with little change. However, the most influential work of the Roman period proved to be an exception to this trend: the codification of Latin grammar by Marcus Terentius Varro under the headings of etymology, morphology, and syntax.

McHenry, Robert (1993:410) claim that:

The Romans adopted the grammatical system of the Greeks and applied it to Latin. Except for Varro, of the first century BC who believed that grammarians should discover structures, not dictate them, most Latin grammarians did not attempt to alter the Greek system and also sought to protect their language from decay. Whereas the model for the Greeks and Alexandrians was the language of Homer, the works of Cicero and Virgil set the Latin standard. The works of Donatus (4<sup>th</sup> century AD) and Priscian (6<sup>th</sup> century AD), the most important Latin grammarians, were widely used to teach Latin grammar during the European Middle Ages.

(McHenry, Robert, 1993:410)

In this age there were many books on grammar that came into being. Most of these books were mainly based on the comparison and contrast of the Greek and Latin languages. Crystal (1997:409) rightly briefs the contribution:

Especially towards the end of the millennium, several authors wrote major works in the fields of grammar and rhetoric notably Cicero on style on Quintillion (1st Century AD) on usage and public speaking. Julius Caesar wrote on grammatical regularity. Aelius Donatus (4<sup>th</sup> century AD) wrote a Latin grammar that was used right into the Middle Ages; its popularity evidenced by the fact that it was the first to be printed in wooden type, and had a shorter edition for children. In the 6<sup>th</sup> century, Priscian's *Institutiones Grammaticae* (Grammatical categories) was another influential work that continues to be used during the Middle Ages. It contains 18 books, and remains the most complete grammar of the age that we have. The main result of the Roman period was a model of grammatical description that was handed down through many writers in Europe, and that ultimately became the basis of language teaching in the Middle Ages and the Renaissance. In due course, this model became the traditional approach to grammar which continues to exercise its influence on the teaching of English and other modern languages.

So, after the Greek period the Romans did a great job in different fields of language. They did not concentrate on any particular topic like Greeks. They highlighted different aspects of language like grammar, rhetoric, usage and spoken form. They modified the grammatical description which shifted from Rome to Europe. After that they roused it in language teaching. The Middle Ages were an important time for the development of the language. The term 'traditional' grammar came into existence after a long wait because grammatical description by the Romans was modified.

#### **2.1.2.1 Trentius Varro**

M. Trentius Varro was the contemporary of Greek scholar Dionysius Thrax. He did a tremendous job in the development of Latin language. Most of the grammarians of this age were followers of the Greek. But Varro was the man who not only followed the Greek, but also further extended the study.

Varro, the Alexandrians and the Stoics were well known and discussed grammar at length, but it was only Varro who deviated from the logic based opinions. He gave some technical definitions and compounds with Greek and was the first serious Latin writer who maintained a record. Mc Arthur (1991:01) states that:

Varro was the legend who converted the technical terms of Greek into Latin, and adopted Greek-based rules to serve their own tongue. A great advantage in describing Latin more or less in terms of Greek was her similarity of the two languages: both are highly inflected with complex verb and noun structure.

Even Dinneen (1967:108) claims that:

Varro thought he would solve the problem of whether some words are like other words in Latin. He believed that he could show that Latin is regular and that apparent irregularities could be explained, especially apparent irregularities between words and the things they stand for. In order to give this explanation, Varro offered his views about many features of the Latin language – what a word is, what variety and regularity are discoverable among the various forms of the words, how these are to be accounted for, how differing styles and periods in a language are to be understood, whose task it is to study these various problems and what kind of equipment is required to deal with these questions.

He gave a minimum basic form that is not further analyzable into simple, meaningful parts. It can be used in various forms but style will be remain the same. His study was both speculative and experimental. His position was very close to the Stoics because there were some views which were familiar to the Stoics.

#### **2.1.2.2 Quintillian**

Varro's ideas on the different aspects of language were modified by Quintillian, who was very similar to Thrax in his approach towards grammar and other aspects of language. Even Quintillian discussed and studied analytically the Latin case system. These types of topics were always in the

system and were always in the minds of Latin scholars as followers of the Greeks. Apart from them, Robins (1997:67) states:

Priscian in view of the absence of any morphological feature distinguished the instrumental use of the ablative case forms from their other uses, the reproved such an addition to the descriptive grammar of Latin as redundant (super-vacuum).

It was a great success of the Roman grammarians through whom they accepted grammatical description of the language and brought it to completion. Later on they handed it on to the middle ages that spanned the first five centuries of the Christian era.

The main focus in the Roman period was a model of grammatical description that was supplied through many writers in Europe, and became a base for language teaching in the Middle and Renaissance periods. They used traditional grammar in language teaching. This approach was also accepted by different grammarians. The application of this approach is used in exercises and left a nice impact on language teaching. Latin grammar is written by different grammarians in this age but Donatus (4<sup>th</sup> century AD) wrote a grammar which had great importance. It was adopted by the medieval period. This age is assumed to be an age of complete grammar. There were many books written in this era. The main attention of this age was to provide a model. (Robins 1997:60) further states:

Roman linguistics was largely the application of Greek thought, Greek controversies and Greek categories to the Latin language

### **2.1.3 The Indian Tradition**

The most fascinating non-western grammatical tradition, and the most germinal and independent is that of India, which culminates with the grammar of Panini whose date is usually given as being circa the 5<sup>th</sup> century B.C. The Sanskrit grammar of Panini already comprises a fully formulated system, its author standing at the end of a long time of precursors of which sixty-four are named, but whose works have entirely perished.  
([http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/grammar\\_Development\\_of\\_grammars](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/grammar_Development_of_grammars))

It is the discovery of the long lost tradition of Sanskrit grammar by the Europeans in the 18<sup>th</sup> century that helped them find a path in the development of grammar of Latin and other European languages. Sanskrit, for the ancient India, was the language of religious rituals and thus the religious hymes of the Hindus were composed in Sanskrit for centuries. It was believed, like other classical languages that the language should be preserved in its original grammar and pronunciation. Therefore,

Syall and Jindal (1998:37) state as

Sanskrit grammar originated as an attempt to preserve the classical language of the scriptures. This led to a comprehensive description of Sanskrit at the levels of phonetics, grammar and semantics. Thus a tradition of scholarship in linguistics developed, which spanned several centuries.

The intention of the Sanskrit grammarians are well defined in the following lines from Crystal (1997:409)

Their solution was to establish the facts of the old language clearly and systematically and thus to produce an authoritative text. The earliest evidence we have of this feat is the work carried out by the grammarian, Panini, sometime between the 5<sup>th</sup> and 7<sup>th</sup> centuries B.C, in the form of a set of 4,000 aphoristic statements known as *sutras* (threads). The *Astadhyayi* (Eight books), dealing mainly with rules of word formation, are composed in such a condensed style that they have required extensive commentary, and a major descriptive tradition has since been established.

Bloomfield (1933:11) wrote about the Paninis' grammar that it is

One of the greatest monuments of human intelligence. It describes in minute detail, every inflection, derivation, composition and every syntactic usage of its authors' speech. No other language to this day has been so perfectly described. This grammar was discovered by Europeans in the 18<sup>th</sup> century, and it greatly influenced the European scholars. It opened up a new phase in linguistic that of the comparative study of languages



### 2.1.3.1 The Impact of Sanskrit Grammar on the West

Ancient Indian grammarians were centuries ahead of their European counterparts in language studies. Regarding its impact, Jindal and Syall (1998:37) claims:

The Sanskrit grammar was discovered by Europeans in the 18th centuries and it greatly influenced the European scholars. It opened up a new phase in linguistics- that of the comparative study of languages. In 1786, Sir William Jones addressed the Royal Asiatic Society in Calcutta, where he established that Sanskrit was historically related to Latin, Greek and the Germanic languages.

These works on grammar especially of Panini left a nice impact on the western world and provided a foundation for the *Synchronic* description of European languages and gave a new life for comparative linguistics. On the other hand another grammarian of Sanskrit language, was Patanjali who linked phonetics with grammar. He also presented the phonetic allophonic variations like theory of *dhavni*, and *sphota*.

In the Nineteen century scholars developed systematic analysis of parts of speech, mostly built on the earlier analysis of Sanskrit. The early Sanskrit grammar of Panini was a valuable guide in the compilation of grammars of the languages of Europe, Egypt and Asia. This writing of grammars of related languages using Panini's works as a guide, is known as Indo-Europeans grammar, a method of comparing of and relating the forms of speech in numerous languages.

([http://encarta.msn.com/encylopedia\\_761558783/grammar.html](http://encarta.msn.com/encylopedia_761558783/grammar.html))

### 2.1.4 The Middle Ages

The middle ages are known as 'Dark Ages'. It was the age of the co-ordination between the classical and medieval age. This age was the breakdown of Roman Empire. So its effect came on different fields and areas of study. Modern Europeans exaggerated the medieval on the basis of race and devalued them on the basis of their culture and other activities. But after the decline of the Roman Empire, things settled down slowly. There were many Greek works that were made alive by the translations done by the

Romans. At the same time there were some grammarians like Dionysius Thrax, and Apollonius Dyscolus who were working on grammatical categories and gave some concepts also. In this regard Latin was the medium of instruction and shifted to the medieval in this period. These types of work helped much to give a new life for grammar teaching. In this age grammatical categories and its theories were used to teach in the classrooms. In the same age there were fewer comparative studies of languages. They wanted to compare their own language with Latin and with other languages, but there was another misconception in the minds of scholars that there should be a structure or a rule which can fit all languages and this structure is borrowed from Greek and Latin. But they were not successful because there were some pious languages which did not allow any amendment. They believed that such types of changes will affect the original languages. So it shifted into Indo – European languages.

In the middle ages there were two types of traditions classical and medieval. Crystal (1997: 410) briefs both the ages:

Medieval learning was founded on seven 'arts' of which three – grammar, dialectic, and rhetoric – formed one division, known as the *trivium*. Grammar (mainly using Priscian and Donatus) was seen as the foundations for the whole of learning. A tradition of speculative grammars developed in the 13<sup>th</sup> and 14<sup>th</sup> centuries in which grammatical notions were reinterpreted within the framework of scholastic philosophy. The authors (the *modistae*) looked to philosophy for the ultimate explanation of the rules of grammar. A famous quotation from the period states it is not the grammarian but the philosopher who discovers grammar' (*philosophus grammatican invenit*). The differences between languages were thought to be superficial hiding the existence of a universal grammar.

Aelfric was the grammarian who wrote his grammar for Latin for the British students during the 11<sup>th</sup> century and became a model for other languages as there were many grammarians who contributed in this area. Donatus also taught some grammatical concepts to the foreign students and these works along with traditional school grammar borrowed from ancestors and different ages gave birth to the systematic grammar designed especially

for foreign students and so we can conclude that this age was mainly concerned with grammar teaching through Latin. Later on, their minds diverted towards form based grammar. Slowly their interests moved less towards grammar and very few grammarians wanted to make it more interesting and systematic. But with the Renaissance once again, their interests shifted towards grammar and till 14<sup>th</sup> to 15<sup>th</sup> century its effect were bound to follow for common use. 'Speculative grammar' is the one of evidences of the development of grammatical notions in between the 13<sup>th</sup> to 14<sup>th</sup> century.

David Crystal (1997:410) states that:

A tradition of 'Speculative' grammars proved developed in the 13<sup>th</sup> to 14<sup>th</sup> centuries in which grammatical notions were reinterpreted within the framework of scholastic philosophy.

These developments show how they contributed to the development of grammar as well as language. There were some important figures who really worked hard for grammar and its teaching.

#### **2.1.4.1 Priscian**

Priscian was a popular grammarian of the medieval period. His formulation of grammatical description of Latin helped a lot in the formation of speculative grammar. Priscian's description of Latin grammar was mainly concerned with the pedagogical point of view. Whatever he presented as his grammatical descriptive was not adequate for consideration but students mostly studied his (Priscian) new works. The scholars and grammarians who criticized his description for being inadequate, but praised that it might be useful for pedagogical purposes.

Those, who opposed Priscian's concepts regarding grammatical description, also believed that his proposed grammar and its theory could be the base for further development of grammar and its language. Mostly grammarians and philosophers studied his grammar and used it to move forward to the next step. These concepts and descriptions were not enough

for the higher study in this regard. For higher grammatical studies, the grammarians of this age analyzed the Priscian's studies and this analytical study brought a change and coined the new term speculative grammar. Robins (1997:88) States that "Speculative grammar was the product of the integration of the grammatical description of Latin as formulated by the Priscian".

Many grammarians and scholars were not satisfied with Priscian's views. They objected and stated that it should be nicely presented. Robins (1997:89) records:

William of Conches (12<sup>th</sup> century) complained that Priscian had neglected to deal with the casual basis of the various parts of speech and their accidents. Some of the charges against Priscian and the other Latin grammarians show an interesting resemblance to the charges of neglecting explanatory adequacy of theory in favour of mere observational inadequacy of data recording that are made today by generating grammarians against then more purely descriptive predecessors associated with Bloomfield and the dominant trends in linguistic work during the second quarter of the present century. From the 12<sup>th</sup> century on they provided the impetus that led to speculative grammar and to a theory of language set within the philosophy of the times. There was too a marked increase in the volume of grammatical research and study that was carried on.

Whatever happened with the Priscian's thought was the development in the field of grammatical studies. American and European linguists did a great job in this area. Their work was accepted by the modern linguists also.

Aelfric addressed his schoolmates regarding Priscian's grammar as a base. He wrote the first Latin grammar for English learners. It was a remarkable job on Aelfric's part. As different statements have been given by different linguists about Priscian's work, Donatus (4<sup>th</sup> century) also paid much attention to grammar. Donatus worked to give a nice foundation for the whole of language learning. He presented a general concept of Greco-Latin grammar meanwhile a simple grammar was being presented for the young learners that tried to give the right form and rules to make a correct language.

#### 2.1.4.2 Donatus

Donatus is a very important figure of medieval age. Grammar modified just because of Donatus and Priscian's hardwork in this field. Their work in this way standardized the medieval grammar. Allen (1971:3) defines:

The difficulties arising from the use of different basis of definition became acute only when the scheme of Dionysius was applied to languages differing structurally from the classical language before the rise of modern linguistic science. European grammarians sought to device logically consistent systems of grammar.

The main problem with Donatus and the Medieval grammarians was Aristotle's logic because the classical age was mainly concerned with logic and philosophy. Donatus who followed the Greco-Roman trends of grammar was influenced by the traditional trends of the previous ages but his efforts brought about a modification in the field of grammar. On the other hand there were many recent developments held by various grammarians of the recent and previous ages. Their definitions based on new concepts became a hurdle for Donatus and the medieval scholars. He modified grammar but failed to achieve acuteness. Later on the grammarians and logicians reintroduced Aristotelian work on logic and the Port-Royal Group declared that grammar is a branch of logic. It means that they were also highly influenced by the Greek philosophy. Different analysis introduced such types of conclusion so that they could decide this theory to be more comprehensive, suitable and applicable. So Donatus was the dominating figure among the medieval. His thought was very popular among the medieval men but there was a dispute of the Holy text. His thoughts were not applicable to all texts and clerics who did not want any changes in the pious texts. He became more prescriptive and very conscious about application of rules in oral and written communication. That is why its strictness towards prescriptive approach and application of rules were bound to be a philosophy. But as advancement occurred in this field, it changed from the classical to traditional. This trend continued till the new concepts emerged.

#### 2.1.4.3 Boethius

He was a contemporary of Priscian, and the only one who was influenced by western Europe in the medieval period. He started translation from Greek to Latin. He was really a philosopher of this age who worked on different fields like arts, education, philosophy, sciences and music. Evidence has been found that he has discussed grammar. He wanted to give a universal concept to medieval Europe and most of his time was spent in trying to solve such problems. Boethius and his views about grammar tried to solve the Aristotelian Syllogism. Actually syllogistic views were logic based and traditionally conceptualized so this medieval idea about grammar presented an advanced and modified concept. Analytical studies helped to find out data for the development of language. They came to the conclusion that it must be technical rather than logic based.

Dinneen (1967:127) stated about Boethius that he was known as the:

School Master of the West. His plan for a liberal education consisted of two parts, known through the terms he intended for them- the *Trivium* and the *Quadrivium*. The *Quadrivium* refers to the study of arithmetic, Geometry, Astronomy and Music but *Trivium* dealt with the three "expressions of knowledge"- grammar, logic, and rhetoric. Boethius' own works formed the basis of instruction in these fields.

#### 2.1.4.4 Peter Helias

Peter Helias was another grammarian of the medieval time and trend, who advanced beyond the Greco-Roman studies. But in the 12<sup>th</sup> century Peter Helias added some valuable points about regularities of Latin. This type of a new idea emerged with the controversies between regularities and irregularities in the Greek period. His work on Priscians's grammar is important. Every one wanted to change the classical view and logical thinking. This was the time to think scientific and get riddance from the Platonic and Aristotelian views. There were many models of grammar and pronunciation presented. These kinds of drastic changes in ideas were accepted by the people and linguists. These trends proliferated very soon. These were

preferred because of classical norms. That's why Dinneen (1967: 128) presents his view of the medievals and the trends of this age. Which is as follows:

Instead of basing their rules for correct usage on the ancients, their rules for correct usage on the ancients, the medievals under the influence of the logical approach to all problems, began to appeal to what they considered the inherent logic of their language. For this reason the period was called that of the "Logicization of Grammar.

Peter Helias was a great contributor and studied Aristotelian's logic and grammar of Priscian. He tried to solve old traditional problems and wanted more justification in this regard. He shifts from the classical age to the scholars of this age. His major work regarding grammar was between the 13<sup>th</sup> and the 14<sup>th</sup> centuries. As Dinneen (1967:128) states:

Helias's work also gave impetus to the development of philosophic grammars in the 13<sup>th</sup> and 14<sup>th</sup> centuries. Today these grammars are called general grammars.

Helias contributed in the development of grammar as well as language. In a way he developed 'general grammar' that means its structures, rules and its argument should be for general students. Later on this general grammar modified into speculative grammar. It was difficult to define because they borrowed certain rules and features of different languages. Sometimes they faced difficulty in application of other languages but on the basis of his works and definitions we can say that he encouraged the logical views and on the basis of these logical opinions he wanted to correct grammatical forms and its constructions. He followed the inductive approach. Dinneen (1967:129) states:

He defined Grammar" as – the science that shows us how to write and speak correctly.... It is the task of this art to order the combination of letters into syllables, syllables into words, and words into sentences.... avoiding solecisms and barbarisms. It is significant to note that Helias considered grammar both an art and a science. As these terms were used in his day, this suggests that grammar has two characteristics: since it is an art, its most fundamental principles and assumptions will be the

consequences of human choice and not impersonal necessity as in the natural sciences. Since grammar is a science, it will have an exact procedure for which rules can be formulated, so that one can know when the rules have been applied or when they have been violated. Helias also recognized that there are as many grammars as there are languages.

#### **2.1.4.5 Peter Hispanus**

The name that comes after Peter Helias as an authority of his age on different fields like medicine and logic is Peter Hispanus. Hispanus encouraged the logic but he was not too much aware about the grammatical notions, because his divisions of sentence into two parts was logic based. So we can say that his motivation was toward ancestors who followed logic. On the other hand he was very careful about roots and suffixes and he could distinguish better than other grammarians. The other fields that he focused on were phonology, cases, traditional approach of grammar and carried towards structural approach. He discussed six types of cases used in Latin. He presented some clue for semantics too.

Peter Hispanus was also one of the followers of logic, but focused on meaning's significance. This type of clue has been found in Dinneen (1967:132) who states:

In the logical work of Peter Hispanus, the term "signification" like our vague term "meaning" is split up into several distinguishable aspects. Instead of one term this pans used three "signification" "supposition" and "appellation". On the basis of these designations he discussed the properties of terms, a section of his logical work that was much initiated and extended by others.

These ideas are very similar to Helias and it seems that he was the follower of Aristotle's view of logic. But he could distinguish properly between logical and grammatical terms. He discussed and defined sentences, noun, verb and parts of speech. Later on he decided to divide the sentence into these parts – declarative, imperative, optative and subjunctive.



Hispanus made a very close distinction between principal signification and consignification. But he could not distinguish properly between roots affixes that other grammarians separated accurately. The followers of P. Hispanus were known as '*modistae*', the legends that were at the height of scholasticism in their fields. They were highly interested in searching for the ultimate explanation of the grammatical rules. They introduced philosophical views. Speculative concept of grammar came into existence with the hard work of the medieval scholars and Modistae. Their efforts cannot be ignored. Even they started to think about Semantic grammar basically for Latin language.

### **2.1.5 The Renaissance Period**

Like any other aspect of life, the Renaissance revolutionized even the concepts of grammar by transmitting from the Middle Ages to the Modern World. It was the overseas re-emergence of Greek Philosophy and progress report that affected grammar conceptually. Weaver (1996:15-23) refers to this as,

The renaissance continued the classical tradition of educating boys, and doing so in Latin and Greek grammar. Grammar studies are considered a means of honing the mind and the classical trivium of grammar, rhetoric, and logic was considered the foundation of all knowledge and were prerequisites for later studies in theology, philosophy and literature.

Such traditions continued till the 19<sup>th</sup> century. In the 16<sup>th</sup> century the term 'grammar' was not popular, but it became influential in the 18<sup>th</sup> century. It was the age of comparison; during this period many linguists worked in the field of comparative linguistics. This was the only reason for the development of the Indo-Europeans languages. Varro was the one who played a vital role during 16<sup>th</sup> to 17<sup>th</sup> century. He compared his mother tongue's description with the description of the grammar of Latin. Dionysius Thrax (School of Alexandria) presented his view regarding parts of speech, then inflections and something about syntax too. This kind of thinking changed the trends of the

age and forwarded the age towards the concept of universal linguistics. Universal grammar came into being in 17<sup>th</sup> century.

McHenry, Robert (1991:410) support the view of Port-Royal Group on Universal grammar. They have presented their views in this regard.

In the 17<sup>th</sup> century France a group of grammarians from Port-Royal was also interest in the idea of Universal grammar. They claimed that common elements of thought could be discussed in grammatical categories of all languages. Unlike their Greek and Latin counterparts, the Port-Royal grammarians did not study literary language but claimed indeed that usage should be dictated by the actual speech of living languages.

Later on the Renaissance trends moved on to the 17<sup>th</sup> century also.

#### **2.1.6 The Seventeenth Century**

Syall and Jindal (1998:41) describes that:

Seventeenth century, interest aroused in modern European languages, with an emphasis on French as a language of elegance and beauty, leading to the establishment of the Port-Royal school of grammars. This school expounded a general theory of grammar based on logic through the medium of languages such as Latin and French. During this time too, English grammars were written.

From the 13<sup>th</sup> to the 15<sup>th</sup> centuries, grammarians and philosophers only explained certain rules of grammar. Universal grammar came into being as a great achievement of the mid 13<sup>th</sup> to 14<sup>th</sup> century. It provided learners as well as scholars with an understanding of grammar. In 17<sup>th</sup> century, Port-Royal group worked hard and modified logic based thoughts of the Greeks and translated it into Latin. Along with these French and English grammars were also written. So from these points of view this age is very important and impressive. English grammar was not in an original form but borrowed from Latin. Traditions had changed the trends towards analyses and observation of language as well as grammatical modification. Grammarians of this age were keenly interested in presenting general grammar for all but they could not ignore universal grammar's concept. These developments were held by the

support of Port-Royal group. They did not studied literary language but paid much attention to dictation of usage by actual speech. They showed their interest in parts of speech and logical categories. These kinds of achievements were made valuable in this century.

Grammar still was as a part of logic and philosophy. They were highly influenced by syntax. Discussions were started on different issues of grammar. There were some prescriptive approaches to grammar. Latin on these rules guided them towards usage.

Grammarians of this century were very conscious about grammatical analysis. As they moved into the 18<sup>th</sup> century, they paid attention to phonetics, historical linguistics and semantic etymology.

### **2.1.7 The Eighteenth Century**

The eighteenth century was a period of great interest in English language and its grammar. The British were also interested in seeing the regularity and stability in the language which was not in the classical languages. They first wanted to establish an academy by which language could be regulated smoothly. The dictionary was also written in this age by Dr. Samuel Johnson. Johnson wrote a brief treatise on grammar but there was the problem of continuity. In 1762 Joseph Priestley published *A Short Introduction to English Grammar* which made a remarkable position in the history of English grammar. In the 18<sup>th</sup> century, most of the scholars wanted to form a standard language and for this they used grammar as a tool.

Grammar was used as measurement. There was lots of confusion whether French was true or German. There is no touch stone method to check right or wrong. No one can give any judgment regarding linguistics. Prescriptivists of 18<sup>th</sup> century suggest that languages are arbitrary and conventional.

Malmkjaer and Kristen (eds.) (1993:191) deliberate on the achievements of 18<sup>th</sup> century:

The crowning achievement in the latter part of the eighteenth century came with the discovery that the

Sanskrit language of Ancient India was related to the languages of Europe and to Latin and Greek.

This was the age of comparative linguistics, in which comparison was on the peak. This kind of a trend brought lots of changes in the study of language and its grammar.

### **2.1.8 The Nineteenth-Century**

The Nineteenth century is the best known as the era of historical and comparative linguistics. In the early part of 19<sup>th</sup> century best known figures were Dante, Rasmus Rask, the German Franz Bopp, and Jacob Grimm. The comparative study of work done in a systematic way was started by the philologists, Rask (1787-1832) and Grimm (1785-1863). Rask started the first systematic grammar of the Old Norse and Old English. Grimm's studies were basically on Germanic linguistics. He introduced a law for sound shift that is known as Grimm's Law. These laws were discussed in *Deutsche Grammatike* (1822) second edition. This was the age when aspects of comparative and historical linguistics and its theoretical and technical methodology have been covered. There were some names like Rask, Grimm and Bopp, who were the founders of scientific historical linguistic. In this age there were some scholars who worked for Sanskrit like A.W.F. Schlegel (1767-1845), F. Bopp (1791-1867), and A.F. Pott (1802-87). Schlegel's (1808) *On The Language And The Learning Of The Indians* (1808) presented the intrinsic structure of language. Most of the linguists who developed, their valuable time to develop a relationship between one language to another. On the other hand, in this age historical grammarians did not follow earlier prescriptive approaches but were interested in discovering a language etymology. Lindley Murray's *English Grammar* (1837, 7<sup>th</sup> Ed. U.S) was concerned with the expansion of the 21 rules of syntax. We can conclude that both the 18<sup>th</sup> and the 19<sup>th</sup> centuries were the followers of not descriptive approach to grammar but of prescriptive. These scholars convinced that the languages should be standardized. On the other hand grammarians needed to look for correct usage and establish it as a law-giver.

Ramjiwale (1999:178) described the real conditions of the 19<sup>th</sup> century in the following manner:

Developments taking place in the nineteenth century were characterized by a radical shift from the rigid classical normative approach to a more structured one which brought into forms the need to adopt a descriptive and analytical approach. Deepening interest in the study of civilizations and culture necessitated a closer look at the ancient languages with the same investigative outlook that was applied to excavating the remains of historical, archaeological past. Diachronic study of languages with a view to comparing them in terms of structural and other linguistic correspondences and discovering common sources of descent called for scientific methodology, and a complete abandonment of the earlier speculative approach.

These developments presented a new chapter for the language studies. At the end of 19<sup>th</sup> century historical and comparative linguistics was in full bloom. Later on the scientific study of language began and flourished very much. Ramjiwale (1999:178) urges that:

Such revolutionary developments were bound to have momentous effect on the general view of 'grammar'! The change can be seen in this description of grammar advanced by Grattan and Gurrey as early as 1928. The grammar of a language is not a list of rules imposed upon its speakers by scholarly authorities but is a scientific record of the actual phenomena of that language, written and spoken. If any community habitually uses certain forms of speech, these forms are part of grammar of the speech of that community! So value judgments and yardsticks of 'correctness' and 'nobleness' were discarded and grammar was seen as 'concerned' with the structure of stretches of utterance, or stretches of writing, and with the grouping and classification of the recurrent elements of utterances by virtue of the functional places they occupy and the relations they contract with one another in the structures.

During the 19<sup>th</sup> century the attention of most linguists was focused mainly on standard written languages. Only a few felt about the spoken languages. Generally a very small minority of linguists is concerned themselves with the variations in form exhibited within vernacular languages.

These were very problematic issues to tackle in the situation within the framework of historical linguistics. This was developed by the neo-grammarians.

#### **2.1.9 The Neo-Grammarians**

One of the important trends in linguistics at the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century was the emergence of the neo-grammarians or *Junggrammatiker*. This was the new school for linguists, who helped to give a scientific base to historical linguistics. The tradition of this school was not to believe in theoretical aspects and it favored collecting the data from actual languages.

This type of research came from the American linguists Bloomfield and Sapir, the neo-grammarians, who paid more attention to the field of linguistics. There were two important fields of linguistics Phonetics and Dialectology. These subjects were not only part of discussion, but also raised many issues, which become controversial. Differences of pronunciation, grammar and vocabularies were mapped by neo grammarians in Europe. They also studied differences between two dialects and languages. They found that it varies culturally and phonetically. They found different boundaries between dialects and languages.

Whitney and the Neo-Grammarians such as Brugmann Paul, Osthoff, Sievers, Leskien and others studied both comparatively and historically. In England there were some scholars who trained to 'the Neo-Grammarians like – J. Wright, and in France A. Meillet. In America, the linguists, F. Boas, E. Sapir, and L. Bloomfield, de Sassure's approach of synchronic vs. diachronic has been taken from historical linguistics. Later on they linked each other in a natural order. But after the emergence of the father of modern linguistics, de Sassure, comparative and historical linguistics began to decline.

Descriptive phonetics which was based on data and the formation of different dialects was studied at the end of 19<sup>th</sup> century. Saussure's effect was continued at the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. De Sassure's important structural approach was developed and modified by the American structuralists like Bloomfield and his followers such as Trubetzkoy but

Chomsky was the great among them who develop the 'langue' and 'parole' as 'competence' and 'performance'. The school of thoughts – Prague, Hjelmsler and the Copenhagen School Martinet, and Chomsky.

#### **2.1.10 The 20<sup>th</sup> Century**

In the 19<sup>th</sup> century the linguists and phoneticians who studied and compared the sound system of languages showed the way for a descriptive approach to language. These analysis and observations brought a new way for the description of the structure of language. Many languages were analyzed at the level of their sound system. At the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) introduced and found phoneme, morpheme and constituents of the structures of sentences that gave a new concept to phonology and grammar. Phoneme means the unit of sound and Morpheme is the minimal meaningful unit of the language which is helpful in the area of Phonology.

Jindal and Syal (1998:48) summarize the 20<sup>th</sup> century in the following lines:

In the latter half of the century, the theory of transformational-generative grammar provided a new paradigm for study of language. Important linguists in this century, to name only a few, are Bloomfield, Harris, de Saussure, Count Trubetskoy, Roman Jakobson, Noam Chomsky, J.R Fifth and Michael Halliday.

Mostly in the 18<sup>th</sup> and the 19<sup>th</sup> century, grammarians were based on the prescriptive approach. They presented grammar as the art or science of correct speech and writing. But in the 20<sup>th</sup> century scholarly grammar of English, attention was paid to the descriptive approach of Grammar but specially on Syntax.

David Crystal (1997:411) states:

What Sassure (1957-1913) in the beginning of 20<sup>th</sup> century saw was a sharp change to emphasis, with the study of the principles governing the structure of living languages being introduced by the Genevan linguist, Ferdinand de Sassure (1957-1913).

Sassure presented some of the most important ideas that were expressed in the form of the pairs of concepts such as diachrony vs. synchrony, langue vs. parole, Signifier vs. signified, and Syntagmatic vs. Paradigmatic. Both American and European approaches developed rapidly. Sassure's thought was adopted by different groups of scholars like the French, Greek and Denmark. In the middle decades of the century there were schools of thought, and some approaches dominated since 1960. In the same age different grammatical theories and approaches emerged.

In the beginning of the Twentieth century, de Sassure introduced some valuable concepts/principles of linguistics like diachronic(a language/ grammar's study is studied at a particular moment of time). While synchronic deals a language or grammatical study is studied at a particular point in time). The distinction of the two above terms diachronic and synchronic have been debated in the later chapter. *Langue* (The system of the language or grammar) whenever *Parole* (The application of the system of language or grammar in actual language use). These terms also have been defined clearly. *Signifier* and *Signified* terms can not be ignored because these concepts are meaning –based. The term '*signified*' means the concept of anything while '*signifier*' is the 'image of the concept, For Example: There is a word 'Bulb'

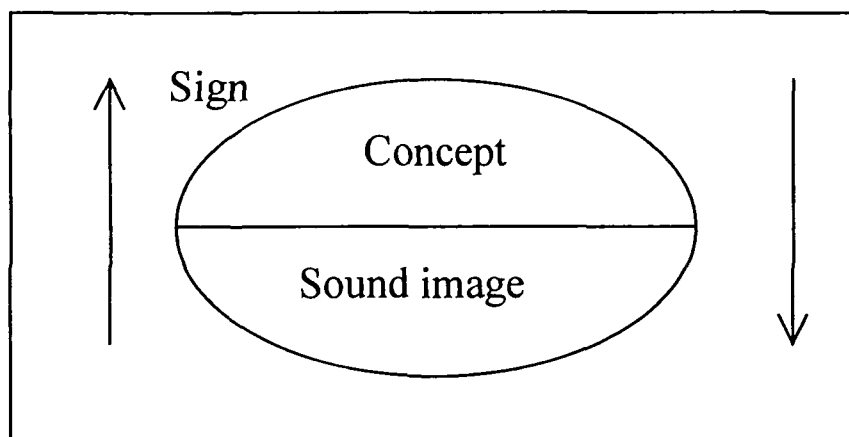
Signs>The above word in example is 'Bulb'

Signifier>The combination of sounds, like : 'B+u+l+b'

Signified>The Category "electric bulb"

Here, linguistically the example of the word 'Bulb' has been presented to understand the distinction between 'signifier' and 'signified'. The concept of 'bulb' which comes in our mind that it is used at the home for light and usually is made of glass. But the image which appears in mind about the 'bulb' is 'signified'. De Sassure believes that this is a 'sign of linguistic'





**Fig.1. David Crystal (1997: 411), 'Encyclopedia of Language', Sign of Linguistics.**

The another principles of De Sasure was 'syntagmatic' and 'paradigmatic'. The linear sequence of sentence having relationship in each is called syntagmatic while the words of sentences from the top to below, are associated one by one is known as 'paradigmatic'. This principle has been defined in the chapter (3) with example. So there is no need to explain in an extended form.

Let us talk about the American structuralists, or structural linguists who developed the notions of the Swiss linguist de Sasure. These linguists paid much attention on two aspects of language like Morphology and syntax. Bloomfield's '*Language*' appeared in (1933). Bloomfieldian's concept of structuralism was based on behaviouristic approach lead to semantics. Immediate constituent analysis which did not presented only the discontinuity and ambiguity of the sentence structure of the sentence structure but it transformation also. Their concept was based on behaviouristic approach while Chomsky's concept was mentalistic. In Immediate Constituent Analysis (ICs) we make possible division till the morpheme. This concept also has been explained in the philosophical debate (next chapter).

In this phase five School of Thoughts have been identified in 'The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language' edited by Crystal (1997:412). Which are listed below:

#### **2.1.10.1 Functional Sentence Perspective**

An approach used by the Prague school of linguists to analyse utterances, in terms of their information content, and still widely used in the Czech Republic and other countries of Eastern Europe. The semantic contribution of each major element in a sentence is related with respect to the 'dynamic' role it plays in communication.

#### **2.1.10.2 Dependency Grammar**

A type of formal grammar developed in the 1950s notably by the French linguist, Lucien Tensnive (1893-1954). It explains grammatical relationships by setting up 'dependencies' (or valencies) between the elements of a construction.

#### **2.1.10.3 Tagmemics**

A theory developed since the 1950s by the American linguist, K.L. Pike (1912) which focuses particularly on the need related to linguistic 'forms' and 'functions'. A central notion is the contrast between the 'emic' units, which are functionally contrastive in a language (such as phoneme and morpheme), and the 'etic' units that give them physical shape (cf. phonetics 28) form and function was also one of the achievements.

#### **2.1.10.4 Stratificational Grammar**

A theory devised by the American linguistics S. M. Lamb (1929) in the 1960s that views language as a system of related layers (strata) of structure. Lamb's *Outline of Stratificational Grammar* (1966).

#### **2.1.10.5 Systemic Linguistics**

A theory developed in the 1960s by the British linguist M.A.K. Halliday (1925), in which grammar is seen as a network of 'systems' of interrelated contrasts; particular attention is paid to the semantic and pragmatic aspects of analysis and also to the way intonation is used in the expression of meaning.

These approaches to linguistics came into existence in the middle decades of the century. The Chomskian concept of generative grammar brought a drastic change in the mid 20<sup>th</sup> century. These are some well known figures of this Age like John Rupert Firth (1890-1960s) worked on language pattern at a specific level of description. The important approach of the linguist was '*polystemicism*'. Roman Jakobson (1896-1982), founder member of Prague school of thoughts, worked on comparative analysis of languages. Louis, Hjelmslev (1899-1965) leading member of the Copenhagen (the American school of thought), propounded the Traditional approach to the language study which was later in 1930s termed as '*glossematics*' and the last but not least Daniel Johns (1881-1967) worked on phonetics. There are some developments in the field of grammar are as follows:

Otto Jespersen *The Philosophy of Grammar* (1924) after that Charles, C. Fries *American English Grammar* (1940) and *The Structure of English* (1952), British scholars like Randolph Quirk, Sidney Greenbaum, Geoffrey Leech and scholar of Sweden named Jan Svartvik *A Grammar of Contemporary English* (1972) and second one creation is – *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language* (1985). The English which became the part of pedagogy in the Schools, Colleges and Universities, so Randolph Quirk and Greenbaum contributed to write the books such as Randolph Quirk and Greenbaum (1973) *A University Grammar of English*. A Communicative Grammar of English by Leech and Svartvik (1975),

*A Student's Grammar of English Language* by Greenbaum and Quirk (1990). There are some theoretical approaches most of the concepts/theories emerged against of the concept 'generative' by N. Chomsky.

Case Grammar was developed by Charles Fillmore (1929). He modified this Chomskian's notion of Transformational Grammar. In reaction to Generative Grammar, he gave his components like – prepositional constituents and modality constituent. Case grammar requires the 'Deep grammar' and 'Surface Grammar' as Chomsky's D- Structure and S- Structure.

The Relational grammar was another achievement of this age which explained the relationship of grammar and its approaches. For example 'subject' and 'object' which have relationship like generative terms 'Noun Phrase' and 'Verb Phrase'. Another theory in this connection, X-bar theory provides an option for the phrase structure within a generative concept by Chomsky. Crystal, (1997:413) gave a nice description of X-bar theory:

The theory provides an alternative account of phrase structure within a generative grammar. Further levels of phrase structure are recognized, and distinguished using different numbers of bar symbols. While Montague approach of grammar derives from the work of the American logician Richard Montague (1930-70), and is based on the study of logical language. A close correspondence is set up between the categories of syntax and semantics.

Generalized phrase structure grammar which develop the earliest notions of phrase structure analysis. It gave a dimension to analyze the grammar. There was another theory of grammar which draw attention on the function not on structure. Michael Halliday who introduced this idea and later communicative grammar opted as a main idea. Realistic grammar was based on psychology and urged that the formal grammar should have relationship with the factors based on psychological that leads to the linguistic behaviour. Network grammar which helped to understand the sentences of different types of grammar.

## **2.2 SUMMING UP**

The present chapter, thus, takes a bird's eye view of the origin and development of grammar through the ages. The present chapter basically lists the major contributions and developments with regard to grammar studies. In a nut-shell it reflects three phases of grammar studies: First the study of grammar as a part of logic and philosophy which was initiated by the Greek masters; secondly the comparative and historical approach to grammar, (the 17<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup> century); finally the phase of descriptive linguistics which later developed into structural, functional and communicative grammars with the development of Modern Linguistics. It is important to mention here that this

chapter concentrates more on listing the major grammarians and linguists and their contributions. The various theories concepts and philosophies which came one after the other over the centuries as a reaction to one another are discussed in the next chapter.

## REFERENCES

1. Dykema, Karl W. (1961) *Where Our Grammar Came From?* In Pattersson, Nancy G. (1999) "The Role of Grammar in the Language Arts Curriculum,"  
(<http://www.msu.edu/user/patter90/grammar.htm>)
2. McArthur, Tom (1991) *A Foundation Course for Language Teachers*, 5<sup>th</sup> edition, Cambridge University Press, Great Britain.
3. Dineen, F.P. (1967) *An Introduction to General Linguistics*, 5<sup>th</sup> edition, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York.
4. McArthur, Tom (1991) *A Foundation Course for Language Teachers*, 5<sup>th</sup> edition, Cambridge University Press, Great Britain.
5. Dineen, F.P. (1967) *An Introduction to General Linguistics*, 5<sup>th</sup> edition, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York.
6. Collinge, N.E. (Ed.), (1990) *Special Aspects of Language: Encyclopedia of Language*, Routledge, London.
7. Jindal, D.V. and Syall Pushpinder (1998) *An Introduction to Linguistics : Language Grammar and Semantics*, Prentice-Hall of India, Pvt. Ltd. New Delhi, India.
8. Dineen, F.P. (1967) *An Introduction to General Linguistics*, 5<sup>th</sup> edition, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York.
9. Robins, R.H. (1997) *A Short History of Linguistics*, 4<sup>th</sup> edition, Longman, London.
10. Robins, R.H. (1997) *A Short History of Linguistics*, 4<sup>th</sup> edition, Longman, London.
11. Dineen, F.P. (1967) *An Introduction to General Linguistics*, 5<sup>th</sup> edition, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York.
12. Robins, R.H. (1997) *A Short History of Linguistics*, 4<sup>th</sup> edition, Longman, London.

13. Robins, R.H. (1997) *A Short History of Linguistics*, 4<sup>th</sup> edition, Longman, London.
14. Dineen, F.P. (1967) *An Introduction to General Linguistics*, 5<sup>th</sup> edition, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York.
15. Crystal, David (1997) *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language* II<sup>nd</sup> Edition, Cambridge University Press, U.K.
16. McHenry, Robert (Ed.), (1993) *The New Encyclopedia Britannica*. 15<sup>th</sup> edition, Vol. 5, University of Chicago Press, Chicago.
17. Crystal, David (1997) *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language* II<sup>nd</sup> Edition, Cambridge University Press, U.K.
18. McArthur, Tom (1991) *A Foundation Course for Language Teachers*, 5<sup>th</sup> edition, Cambridge University Press, Great Britain.
19. Dineen, F.P. (1967) *An Introduction to General Linguistics*, 5<sup>th</sup> edition, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York.
20. Robins, R.H. (1997) *A Short History of Linguistics*, 4<sup>th</sup> edition, Longman, London.
21. Robins, R.H. (1997) *A Short History of Linguistics*, 4<sup>th</sup> edition, Longman, London.
22. ([http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/grammar\\_development\\_of\\_grammars](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/grammar_development_of_grammars))
23. Jindal, D.V. and Syall Pushpinder (1998) *An Introduction to Linguistics : Language Grammar and Semantics*, Prentice-Hall of India, Pvt. Ltd. New Delhi, India.
24. Crystal, David (1997) *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language* 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, Cambridge University Press, U.K.
25. Bloomfield, L. (1933) *Language*, New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston; London.
26. Jindal, D.V. and Syall Pushpinder (1998) *An Introduction to Linguistics : Language Grammar and Semantics*, Prentice-Hall of India, Pvt. Ltd. New Delhi, India.

27. ([http://encarta.msn.com/encylopedia\\_761558783/grammar.html](http://encarta.msn.com/encylopedia_761558783/grammar.html))
28. Crystal, David (1997) *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language* 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, Cambridge University Press, U.K.
29. Crystal, David (1997) *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language* 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, Cambridge University Press, U.K.
30. Robins, R.H. (1997) *A Short History of Linguistics*, 4<sup>th</sup> edition, Longman, London.
31. Robins, R.H. (1997) *A Short History of Linguistics*, 4<sup>th</sup> edition, Longman, London.
32. Allen, H.B. (1971) *Readings in Applied Linguistics*, Appleton Century Crofts, New York.
33. Dineen, F.P. (1967) *An Introduction to General Linguistics*, 5<sup>th</sup> edition, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York.
34. Dineen, F.P. (1967) *An Introduction to General Linguistics*, 5<sup>th</sup> edition, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York.
35. Dineen, F.P. (1967) *An Introduction to General Linguistics*, 5<sup>th</sup> edition, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York.
36. Dineen, F.P. (1967) *An Introduction to General Linguistics*, 5<sup>th</sup> edition, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York.
37. Weaver, C. (1996) *Teaching Grammar in the Context of Writing*, English Journal, 86, 6, pp. 15-23.
38. McHenry, Robert (Ed.), (1993) *The New Encyclopaedia Britannica*, 15<sup>th</sup> edition, Vol. 5, Encyclopaedia Britannica, Inc., Chicago.
39. Malmkjaer, Kirsten (Ed.), (1991) *The Linguistics Encyclopaedia*, Routledge, London.
40. Ramjiwale, S. (1999) *Elements of General Linguistics*, Vol.1, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, Rama Brothers, Karol Bagh, New Delhi.
41. Ramjiwale, S. (1999) *Elements of General Linguistics*, Vol.1, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, Rama Brothers, Karol Bagh, New Delhi.



42. Jindal, D.V. and Syall Pushpinder (1998) *An Introduction to Linguistics : Language Grammar and Semantics*, Prentice-Hall of India, Pvt. Ltd. New Delhi, India.
43. Crystal, David (1997) *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language* 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, Cambridge University Press, U.K.
44. Crystal, David (1997) *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language* 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, Cambridge University Press, U.K.
45. Crystal, David (1997) *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language* 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, Cambridge University Press, U.K.

# **CHAPTER – 3**

## **CHAPTER-3**

### **GRAMMAR DEBATE: PHILOSOPHICAL LEVEL**

#### **3.0 INTRODUCTION**

The earlier chapter briefed the origin and development of grammar over the ages in its historical perspective, which, in a way, reflected that the study of grammar, though originated in the ancient Greece, later proliferated through centuries and through various civilizations. Such a spread in time and space, as a consequence, brought in a series of new ideas, philosophies, views, concepts, trends and approaches, premised on which the grammarians and linguists studied the role and significance of grammar in the use of language for various purposes. That means these philosophies, concepts and theories relating grammar were either, developed, continued, refuted or even revived by the next generations/civilizations. Historically, for instance, while Plato is known for his being 'logical'; Aristotle was a 'syllogist' in his approach, the Roman philosopher, Varro, was basically a follower of the Greeks, the Port Royal Group of the 17<sup>th</sup> century introduced the concept of universal grammar, the 18<sup>th</sup> and 19<sup>th</sup> century initiated such aspects as prescriptive, descriptive and comparative grammars; de Sassure, a Swiss linguist, introduced 'structuralism' which was later extended by Chomsky in the 20<sup>th</sup> century, and further the 1960s witnessed the 'Notional-functional/communicative grammar. The above developments basically reflect the series of arguments and counter-arguments regarding grammar and language over the ages. The present chapter, therefore, intends to brief the various opposing views regarding grammar at philosophical level. The term 'philosophical' will include the major concepts, trends, theories and views regarding grammar.

For the sake of convenience this study will be made in chronological order and hence this chapter will be divided into two parts: (1) Grammar Debate before the emergence of Modern linguistics; and (2) Grammar Debate after the emergence of Modern linguistics.

### 3.1 GRAMMAR DEBATE BEFORE THE EMERGENCE OF MODERN LINGUISTICS

In this phase grammar was basically studied as a part of logic, rhetoric or philosophy. The developments in the area of grammar studies in this phase show that it has been a favourite discipline for the civilizations in general and the Greeks in particular. So much so that philosophically the following three opposing views emerged among the Greek masters and they still remain cardinal points of discussion among linguists: Logic and Syllogism; Naturalist Vs. Conventionalist and Analogy Vs. Anomaly.

#### 3.1.1 Logic and Syllogism

The word 'logic' has been derived from Greece. It was used in Greece as a branch of philosophy which is used to distinguish between right and wrong, correctness and incorrectness, on the basis of reasoning. On the other hand we can say that logic is the study of reasoning. Dinneen (1967:78) states that the word:

Logos has many meanings such as 'native', 'plan', 'argument', 'Phrase', 'sentence', and 'proposition', depending on the universe of discourse we could assign it.

Later it was believed that 'logos' is composed of the terms '*rhema*' and '*noma*'. That means Logic is the systematic study of statements with validity and proof. In this process, inferences need to be valid and have proof.

For example,

"All students are honest";

"Ravi is a student", therefore,

"Ravi is honest"; is a valid inference, but the argument that

"All students are honest", therefore "Ravi is honest", is an invalid inference, even if "Ravi is a student".

This kind of inferencing is the way to find out the conclusion or result through logic. Further Dinneen (1967:76) claims that logic, is formal and tries to describe the correct combination leading to the true statements.

Plato attempted to establish a discipline that could deal with such rules, was a first attempt to found a formal logic, that is, a system by which we can tell whether combinations are correct or not, merely by inspecting the relations among the terms used. He did not distinguish sufficiently among the various sources of limitation on linguistic constructions (grammatical, stylistic, truth-functional), but he did devise a technique that leads later to the formation of syllogistic rules.

Aristotle who was a logician wanted to give a standard form by which any one could reduce any logical arguments, for this he presented the modified form of logic, called "syllogism".

Syllogism means a formal logic. This is not only the modified concept of logic but also a philosophical recognition among the linguists, logicians, and the grammarians. This kind of notion did not formalize the thoughts, but the formulation created an ability to answer many questions, which are possible for a new realm of thought. This was the technique to give answers on the basis of logical consequence. This kind of proof based statements/ conclusion gave birth to the term 'syllogism'. A syllogism is modernly defined as:

A particular kind of argument containing three categorical propositions, where two of them are premises and one a conclusion; logical form allows one to suitable subjects and predicates for letters (variables). Aristotle was the first to create a logical system which allowed predicates and subjects to be represented by letters. We can see an example of this in Aristotle's famous "Barbara" syllogism:

If A is predicated of all B,  
And B is predicated of all C,  
Then A is predicated of all C.

By predicated, Aristotle means A belongs to B, or all B's are A's. We can substitute subjects and predicates into this syllogism to get:

If all humans (B's) are mortal (A),  
And all Greeks (C's) are humans (B's),  
Then all Greeks (C's) are mortal (A).

(<http://www.perseus.tufts.edu/greekscience/students/jordana/logic.html>)

So we can say that syllogism means a variety of logical argument. The above sentence has three distinctions like –

All humans are mortal

All Greeks are humans

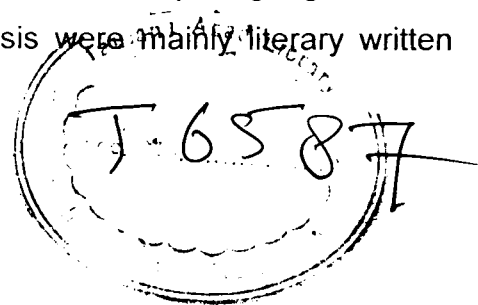
All Greeks are mortal.

'Being mortal' is a major term, 'Greeks' is a minor term and 'being human' is the link between 'All humans' and 'the Greeks'. This is the way to conclude each premise.

### 3.1.1.1 The Place of syllogism in logic

The logical concept became popular before the Nineteenth Century. Logic flourished too much by the syllogistic reasoning. The tradition was very difficult because of its complexity. This is why its application could not expand at a large scale. There were very few who practiced it. It needs logic as well as valid reason. There were many logicians who paid much attention to make it simpler and introduced to 'quantifier theory' and 'predicate logic'. These syllogistic views helped to get in findings of logical arguments of Maths, Philosophies and in Sciences too.

The Greeks approached the study of grammar as a major part of logic and philosophy. Language and its grammar with various constituents such as parts of speech, etc. were studied and deciphered mainly for literary purposes. That is why the aspects of language/grammar in Aristotle's *poetics* are based on the analysis of the plays by Sophists. The study of grammar, thus, with Greek was mainly confined to the study and/or creation of literature. That is why Longinus, too, in his essay "*On the Sublime*" writes of the type of language to be used by writers of literary texts. In addition to this they talked of the sublimity of language for literature, hence they were able to differentiate between the language of common mass and the literary language. At the same time the basis of their linguistic analysis were mainly literary written texts available to them.



### 3.1.2 Naturalists Vs. Conventionalists

This debate is related to the origin and existence of language in general. The Greeks of the 5<sup>th</sup> century B.C. looked at language in two opposing perspectives of 'Naturalism' and 'Conventionalists'. Naturalists believed that language is governed by nature, while the conventionalists believed that language is governed by the conventions of the time and place, it is being used.

The naturalists argued that the forms of the words reflected directly on the nature of objects while the conventionalists thought that language is conventional and there is no logical connection between form and meaning of words.

(<http://www.qflpc.com.cn/jxjzx/show.uspx?id=24&cid=13>)

The Greek philosophers were highly interested in such a discussion. While some believed that language is acquired conventionally, others assumed that language is inherited naturally. This kind of debate existed for a long time. The Greeks discussed it at length and tried to resolve the controversy between Conventionalists and Naturalists, which as a consequence resulted in such grammatical categorizations as 'Parts of Speech', and "Subject-Predicate" besides the semantic studies.

Plato was a 'Naturalists' who believed that by 'Nature' we can give the correct name for everything. He agreed that there are words that have the quality of onomatopoeia, but, on the other hand, the majority of the words have the 'Natural' connection on the basis of 'Semantics' with the reference to one or more of their constituent sounds. He explained that sounds exist in every words which are 'naturally' appropriate to their meaning.

Plato concluded that men did not simply agree to call an "apple" an "apple", but that there was a logical connection between the object and its nature?

(<http://www.personal.ecu.edu/southardo/history.rtf>)

On the other hand conventionalists disapproved the concept in which language was based on 'Nature'. They declared that the nature of the things

is pure due to convention, but there is no sign of deep appropriateness. Here we can see the logical connection between the object and its name.

Aristotle was a conventionalist who was not satisfied with platonic views on language.

Aristotle disagreed with Plato's position, contending that language was arrived at by convention or agreement. Accordingly, he was not interested in the etymology of words, but in describing the words as they were used. Aristotle was the first to contend that words could be classified into "parts of speech", he distinguished three parts of speech, like noun, verb, and the third class that he labeled, "conjunctions.

<http://www.personal.ecu.edu/southardo/history.rtf>

The controversy remains the same till date. The early debate between the 'naturalists' and 'conventionalists' with exclusive reference to the Greek language merged later in a more far-reaching controversy between Anomaly and Analogy.

### **3.1.3 Analogy and Anomaly**

Analogy and Anomaly was another dichotomy which divided the Greek grammarians at conceptual level. This controversy also refers to regularity and irregularity of language. That means this debate is related to the purity of language, which was generally attempted to be maintained by the classics by avoiding any anomaly or irregularity in their languages.

Plato, Aristotle and the Alexandrians were Analogists, while the Stoics were the Anomalists. This division was mainly sharpened due to the rivalry of Alexandria and Pergamon under Macedonian rule as two seats of learning where the Alexandrians were dominated by the analogists and Pergamon by the Stoics, the Anomalist. This debate should be considered more as the two attitudes to language. Dionysius Thrax (1<sup>st</sup> Century BC) was an important scholar of Alexandria who uncovered Analogy. He too thought that language should be regular and hence be saved from any irregularities in it. The Alexandrians, investigated at length into the notion of analogy, but failed to get complete success. Dinneen (1967:95) feels concerned about



Alexandrians failure and tries to explain by saying that they followed the unfortunate example of:

Aristotle in concentrating on the final, single letter of forms, they were unable to show the complete regularities of the declinations and conjugations, so that their lists were always subject to the attack of the pergamon anomalists.

To minimize the confusion and to maintain the regularity in language more effectively, Thrax presented the concerning list in which he explained what grammarians ought to do, and later on grammarians diverted their attention to distinguish between composition and distribution of linguistic items.

On the other hand there were the Anomalists who opposed the analogists and believed in deviation from the normal order, form or rule that is the language which is irregular and unusual. Jindal and Syall (1998:39) pointed out that the:

Anomalists who believed that properties of things were not related to the words used to name them and that there was a great deal of irregular change taking place in words (this view point was held by the stoics, a school of philosophers in Greece).

(Crystal 1997:408) suggests:

Stoics, (a well known school of thoughts in Greece) were the followers of Anomaly and have been called as Anomalist. Apart from these controversies, different attention were paid especially on these fields such as etymology, pronunciation and grammar. It is because of the many exceptions of rules of language which has been displayed. But their attention was towards irregular verbs of misconception of gender and sex.

Such a controversy between 'anomaly' and 'analogy' continued till Xenodotus philadelphus, rather it is echoed even today. It is actually the tolerance of the irregularities in language, that various varieties of the English

language in the late 20<sup>th</sup> century were internationally recognized. Dinneen (1967:95) briefs the controversy of Anomaly and Analogy in following words:

The Anamoly – Analogy controversy lasted for several centuries in the grammatical field, beginning with the work of Xenodotus philadelphus (284-257 BC) and culminating in the work of Apollonius Dyscolus and his son Herodian (H.A.D. 180). The authoritative codification of the work of the Alexandrians is the grammar of Dionysius Thrax (100 BC). This was translated into Latin as the *Ars grammatica* by Remmius Palaemon in the first century A.D. and has served as model, both in the sequence of topics and terminology, for grammars, right up to our own day.

Apart from this controversy the Greek grammarians drew their attention towards etymology, grammar and phonetics. Thrax was a well known figure among the Greek scholars who added many points to solve such types of confusion and brought new concepts in these areas.

The controversy contributed to the study of language by paying attention towards 'Analogies' and 'Anomalies', 'regularities' and 'irregularities' of the language. Both theories contributed to the systematization of grammar. These notions reached even Rome and other European countries. In the words of Robins (1967: 374) the 'Analogy' and 'Anomaly' debate can be briefed as follows:

The analogists emphasized the regularities of grammatical structures and word forms, and the parallels between grammatical forms, word meanings, as constituting the essence of language and the direction in which standards of correctness should be sought, and tended to take up a 'conventional' attitude towards language itself. The anomalists stressed the numerous irregular forms in grammatical paradigms and 'anomalous' associations of plural number with singular entities, genders divorced from any sex reference, and the like, and leaned more towards the naturalists 'view of language, accepting its anomalies as they stood.

(Robins, 1967: 374)

This controversy gave way to detailed study in the area of language which resulted in the formulation of Greek grammar for the first time.

The above discussed dichotomies did not remain confined to the Greeks rather they spread far and wide and their echoes can be heard even today in the modern era. However, the later generations continued working exhaustively in the area of grammar studies. It is significant here to mention that the Greeks considered grammar more as a part of logic and philosophy. They were inferring the rules of grammar from the actual spoken modes of language. That is they considered grammar as a tool for effective writing/rhetoric.

The Romans followed the same tradition and considered grammar as a part of rhetoric. That means they, unlike the Greeks, paid less attention to the aspects of logic and philosophy in comparison to rhetoric. They made extensive studies in the Latin language and attempted to minimize the debates and established the rules of grammar with more clarity. In a way they furthered the rules of grammar established by the Greeks. So some of their contributions, can be listed below:

- (i) Comparative analysis of Greek and Latin.
- (ii) Cicero (106-43 B.C) focused on the 'style' of language.
- (iii) Quintilian (1st AD) was concerned with 'usage' and 'public speaking'. They showed that the spoken mode of language made its significance with the Romans, while it was almost lacking among the Greeks.
- (iv) Donatus wrote a Latin grammar which was used until the middle ages.
- (v) Priscian (6<sup>th</sup> AD) attempted to determine grammatical categories

The Romans, though adopted a major chunk of grammatical rules from the Greeks, but these were modified by bringing in clarity and practicality. It is significant to note here that the grammatical rules that were established by the Greeks out of scholarly endeavors were used by the Romans for academic purposes as a part of school curriculum. Since Latin was the language of the

Church for the whole Europe, especially until the medieval ages, it was taught as a major language in schools. That means the rules of Latin grammar mainly dominated the whole of Europe as a model for the language learning and teaching. It is only with the emergence of the Renaissance which brought a change in almost all walks of life that some new ideas pertaining to language came out. Besides, the vernacular languages of Europe with English in England had taken a proper shape with its own powerful literature, and Britain was emerging as an imperialist power premised on the Renaissance changes. Language in the 17<sup>th</sup> and the 18<sup>th</sup> centuries started to be looked in a new perspective. Hurtung (1962:23) rightly consolidates the existing grammar studies:

Where as the Port-Royal grammarians were interested primarily in demonstrating the general philosophical function of linguistic term, practical grammarians were concerned mainly with devising prescriptive rules that wanted to provide a guide to usage. For this reason they preferred simple categorical statements supported by examples of correct and incorrect usage to abstract reasoning based on logic. Bishop Lowth might praise a philosophical grammar such as the *Hermes* of James Harris, which was in the tradition of Aristotle, the medieval scholastics and the Port-Royal Grammarians, but for the partial reasons he wrote his own grammar according to the pattern of the most commonly used elementary Latin grammarians of this time.

The above changes in attitude to grammar led the grammarians to the following major publications in the eighteenth century such as Dr. Johnson's *Dictionary*, James Harris's *A Philosophical Enquiry Concerning Universal Grammar* (1751), Joseph Priestley *The rudiments of English Grammar* (1761), Robert Lowth's *A Short Introduction to the English Grammar* (1762), and Mindley Murrey's *English Grammar* (1795).

The Nineteenth century witnessed the emergence of the new ideas which later developed as the discipline of linguistics that redefined and re-categorised the rules of grammar and consequently replaced the traditional grammar by Modern grammar.

In the present section, therefore, we saw that while the Greeks studied language in its philosophical perspectives for purely scholarly purposes, the grammarians of Rome and later era studied language/grammar for the practical purpose of learning and teaching. This phase of grammar studies underwent a shift in approach from logic/philosophy to rhetoric to pedagogy.

If we take up the example of the English language since the sixteenth century England, we find a continuous and consistent effort on the part of the grammarians to develop the grammar of English mainly for its practical purposes. English has already been started to be used as an official language of the Royal bureaucracy by mid 16<sup>th</sup> century it had become a core language of English literature; debate on the issue of the supremacy of English as a vernacular language over Latin and French and Greek was going on. The English language was struggling hard to attain the prestige. The spelling and accent were being standardized by Richard Mulcaster, Edmund Coode, John Hall, Sir Thomas Smith and William Bulloker were the reformers who worked in this area. Bulloker is also known for publishing *A Brief Grammar For English* in 1586 which is claimed to be the first English book on grammar. Later some more grammar books, based on Latin grammatical framework, were published. One such example is Ben Jonson's *Short and Scatchy*, which is intended to be used by foreigners.

John Wallis, a mathematician and the member of the Royal Society, published a book on English grammar written in Latin for the foreigners. This book of grammar is popularly known for deviating from Latin tradition and also for establishing a distinction between 'shall' and 'will'.

C.C. Fries tells us that 17<sup>th</sup>-century grammars in general were designed either for foreigners or for school use, in order to lead to the study of Latin. In the 18<sup>th</sup> Century, however, grammars were written predominantly for English speakers, and although they were written for the purpose of instructing, they seem to find more fun in correcting. A change in the underlying philosophy of grammar had occurred, and it is made explicit in perhaps the first 18<sup>th</sup>-century grammar, *A Key to the Art of Letters...*, published in 1700 by a schoolmaster named A. Lane. He thought it a mistake to view grammar simply as a means to learn a foreign language and asserted that "the true End and Use of *Grammar* is to teach how to speak and write well and

learnedly in language already known, according to the unalterable Rules of right reason.

([http://ling.kgw.tuberlin.de/lexicography/data/B\\_HIST\\_EU.html](http://ling.kgw.tuberlin.de/lexicography/data/B_HIST_EU.html))

Later Addison, Steel and Swift worked in favour of English grammar for instructional purpose. Based on the concept of 'universal grammar' Bishop Robert Lowth wrote a grammar book entitled *A Short Introduction to the Grammar* (1762).

Lowth's approach was strictly prescriptive: He meant to improve and correct, not describe. He judged correctness by his own rules-mostly derived from Latin grammar.

([http://ling.kgw.tuberlin.de/lexicography/data/B\\_HIST\\_EU.html](http://ling.kgw.tuberlin.de/lexicography/data/B_HIST_EU.html))

Like the 16<sup>th</sup> and the 17<sup>th</sup> centuries even in the 18<sup>th</sup> and the 19<sup>th</sup> centuries both in England and America were seen a series of books on grammar and rhetoric, meant purely for learning/teaching purposes. These books of grammar were mainly guided by the Latin tradition. In today's diction these books are branded as 'traditional' and 'prescriptive'.

### **3.2 GRAMMAR DEBATE AFTER THE EMERGENCE OF MODERN LINGUISTICS**

The origin of Modern grammar/linguistics has its deep root into the long western tradition of grammar studies, starting with the Greek and later expanding over the Roman and European countries. That is, it was the Greek language which was first attempted to be described to decipher its rules; following this tradition the Romans analyzed the Latin language which was later applied to other European languages. Philosophically/conceptually it was mainly the Greek thoughts which were extended/ continued all through. It was only in the 18<sup>th</sup> – 19<sup>th</sup> century that the old Greek – Latin tradition was remoulded in the light of the discovery of the Indian tradition and the trends of comparative and historical linguistics of the 19<sup>th</sup> century.

The emergence of the Neo-grammarians, who gave the scientific basis to historical linguistics premised on more and more data collection from actual

languages, besides a series of historical events and previous trends in grammar studies that were carried over to the 20<sup>th</sup> century. What we call modern grammar is the gift of philosophy propounded by such great masters of the 1st half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century as De Sassure, Edward Sapir, Trubetzkoy, Bloomfield and Jakobson.

The most important change that was brought by these linguists was the introduction of descriptive linguistics as opposed to historical linguistics. The most significant figure who provided the philosophical change in the outlook from the 19<sup>th</sup> to the 20<sup>th</sup> century was Ferdinand De Sassure. The lecture notes collected and published by his students in 1916 as *Cours de-Linguistique Generale* revolutionized the whole scenario. Some of the basic concepts that De Sassure has put forth are as follows:

### **3.2.1 The Synchronic and Diachronic Study of Language**

The synchronic study of language means the study of linguistic system in a particular state, at a point of time whereas diachronic study of language refers to the evolution of language over a period of time. Robins (1997:224) elaborates synchronic linguistics by considering language as a self-contained system of communication at any particular time; and diachronic in which the changes to which languages are subject in the course of time are treated historically. The above dichotomy provides "Particularly accurate information about language in its current usage" (Wilkins, 1985:24)

Synchronic linguistics, therefore, enables us to study how a language behaves at a given time regardless of its past history. This has also been called "Descriptive Linguistics". However, Hockett (1958:303) claims:

Descriptive and historical linguistics as two separate compartments, each bit of information belonging exclusively in the one or in the other. There are certain matters at a given time and also in connection with linguistics change.

### 3.2.2 Langue and Parole

Another remarkable distinction that de Saussure puts forth is the concept of *langue* and *parole*. Robins (1997:225) explains the distinction as follows:

He distinguished the linguistic competence of the speaker as a member of a speech community, and the actual phenomena or data of linguistics (utterances) as *langue* and *parole* (like so many others, these Saussurian terms have passed untranslated into international currency). While *parole* constitutes the immediately accessible data, the linguist's proper object is the *langue* of each community, the lexicon, grammar and phonology implanted in each individual by his upbringing in society and on the basis of which he speaks and understands his language. Much influenced by the sociological theory of Emile Durkheim, deSaussure perhaps exaggerated the suprapersonal reality of *langue* over and above the individual, more especially as he recognized that changes in *langue* proceed from changes made by individuals in their *parole*, while he yet declared that *langue* is not subject to the individual's power of change. De Saussure showed that any *langue* must be envisaged and described synchronically as a system of interrelated elements, lexical, grammatical, and phonological, and not as an aggregate of self-sufficient entities (which he compared to a mere nomenclature). Linguistic terms are to be defined relatively to each other, not absolutely. This is the theory expressed in his statement that a *langue* is *forme*, *non substance*, and *illustrated* with his well-known metaphors of chessmen and trains, identified and known by their place in the whole system, of the game or the railway network, and not by their actual substantial composition. In a language these interrelations lie on each of the two fundamental dimensions of synchronic linguistic structure, syntagmatic, in line with the succession of utterance, and paradigmatic (associative), in systems of contrastive elements or categories.

*Langue*, therefore refers to the knowledge of the code of the language or the ability that one possesses at the mental level to express in speech and writing. It is in a way institutionalized, community's collective consciousness that every member of the community shares. It is because of this, that the majority of the members share the common properties of speech.



Wilkins (1985: 33) says that

*Langue* by definition, is stable and systematic, society conveys the regulations of *langue*, to the child so that he becomes able to function as a member of the speech community.

*Langue* thus is the general capacity that distinguishes man from the animals. It in a way refers to the language structure which consists of vocabulary, grammar, idioms, rules of pronunciation, etc.

*Parole*, by contrast, refers, to the actual use of the knowledge of the code of the language. That means parole is active and denotes the actual speech behaviour of the individual, not collective, momentary, not stable, and heterogeneous speech behaviour. That means parole refers to the language, both speaking and writing used in context. This distinction by de Saussure provides a paradigm for the structuralist model of linguistics.

### 3.2.3 Syntagmatic and Paradigmatic

On the lines of opposing pairings like synchronic-diachronic and *langue-parole*, de Saussure has put forward the concept of Syntagmatic and paradigmatic. These terms refer to the sign system or the structural relationship between the signs.

The word 'syntagm' means to form a word or group of words with the help of morphemes. For example, 're' + 'charge' → 'recharge'. While forming a phrase, a clause and a sentence too, we need to combine the series of words.

For example,       **The + bus + is + moving + now.**

Words form a sentence, because they are linked together so we say that this is a Syntagmatic relationship. It is a linear arrangement of words, in the sentence "The bus is moving now." It has many segments and each has its own importance, a relationship. 'The' is correlated with 'bus' and 'bus' with the word 'moving' is correlated with the time 'now'. The helping verb 'is' joined two words like 'the bus' and 'moving now'.

The relationship between phoneme as well as words are restricted to certain orders. So, "moving now"; is not a sentence.

Sassure (1959:123) Claims:

In the syntagm a term acquires its value because it stands in opposition to everything that precedes or follows it, or to both.

In the sentence 'the bus is moving now' each word has its own place and relation with the anaphoric and cataphoric relation. For example 'the' is not what 'bus' is, 'is' is not what 'moving' is, not what 'now' is. Each of these words differ from all others. De Sassure (1959:123) distinguishes 'paradigmatic' and its relationship.

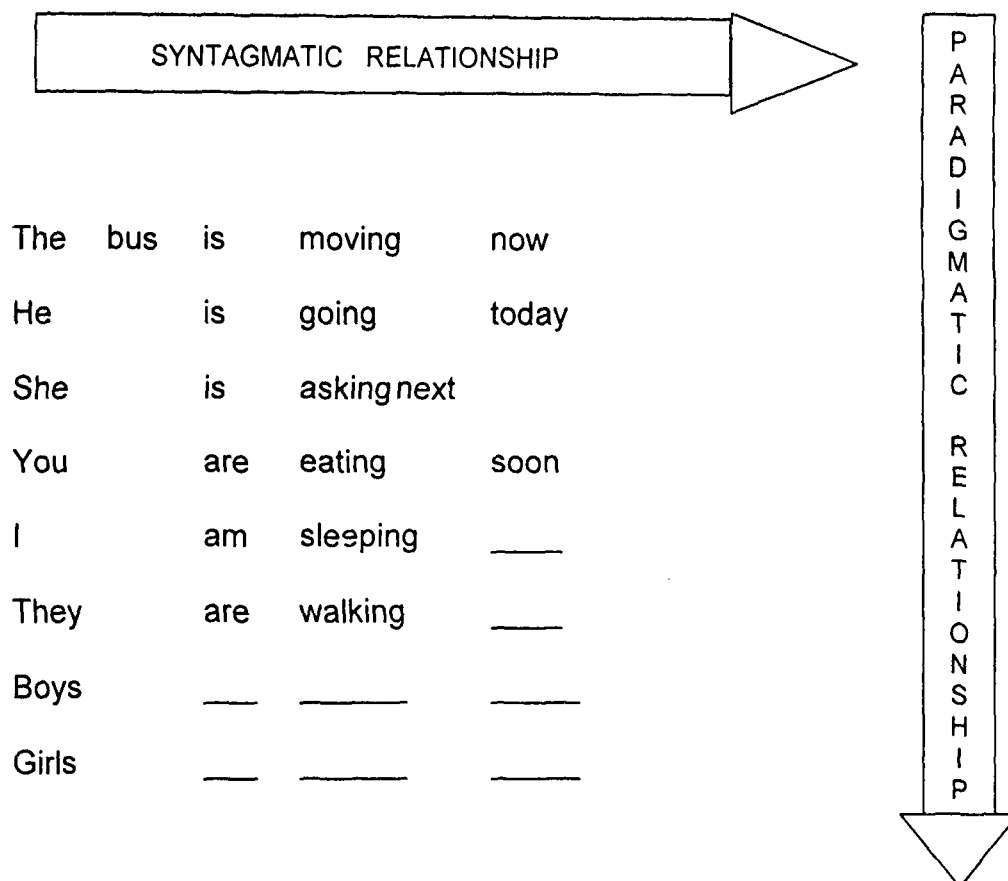
The paradigmatic relationships are contrastive or choice relationships. Words that have something in common, are associated in the memory, resulting in groups marked by diverse relations. For example, the English word **Learning** will unconsciously call to mind a host of other words – study, knowledge, discipline, etc. all these words are, related in some way. This kind of relationship is called associative or paradigmatic relationship. Here the coordinations are outside discourse, and are not supported by linearity. They are relations in absentia and are vertical type relations. Their seat is in the brain; they are the part of the inner storehouse that makes up language of each speaker.

Sassure (1959:126) suggests:

Whereas a *syntagm* immediately suggests an order of succession and fixed number of elements terms in associative family occur neither in fixed numbers nor in a definite order. If we associate painful, delightful, truthful, etc. we are able to predict the number of words that the memory will suggest or the order in which they will appear a particular word is like the centre of constellation; It is the point of convergence of an indefinite number of coordinated terms.

If we see the paradigmatic relationship in the word, it will be vertical and in absentia. It depends on the user's choice or selection. This kind of relationship is called 'Choice relationship'. This works in different units of language like and the Syntagmatic relationship is horizontal and in presentia.

The following diagram will further explain the concept regarding Syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations of the units of language.



**Fig. 2. Syntagmatic and Paradigmatic Relationship**

The above discussed concepts in general as propounded by De Sassure and his statement of the structural approach to the language in particular underlies the very concept of modern linguistics. With De Sassure's concept linguistics emerged as an independent science and a chain of linguists like Sir William Jones, Henry Sweet, Daniel Jones, Trubutzkoy and Prague School applied de Sassure's theories regarding phonemes. The American linguists like Franz Boas, Edward Sapir and Leonard Bloomfield mainly followed Sassure's concept of descriptive linguistics in the first half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. This was mainly under the spell of de Sassure's concepts of descriptive linguistics premised on the idea of structuralism in language as propounded by de Sassure.

The second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century is popularly known as the era of Transformational-Generative Grammar, which is supposed to have started with the publication of Chomsky's *Syntactic Structures* in the year 1957. Some historical linguists considered the year 1959 as the turning point when, Chomsky declared the behaviouristic approach of the Bloomfieldian school as

unacceptable. Chomsky actually had refuted the whole philosophical basis of the Bloomfieldian theory. Therefore, Chomsky introduced the concept of Transformational – Generative Grammar. This concept emerged as oppose to Bloomfield concept of Immediate Constituent as a model of Analysis of human language. He branded ICs (Immediate Constituent Analysis) as an ineffective means for the grammatical description of sentence structures.

Here in order to understand the grammar debate at philosophical level in the 20<sup>th</sup> century, it becomes crucial to discuss the philosophies/concepts pertaining to structuralism as propounded by Noam Chomsky and his predecessors, especially Bloomfield.

Structuralism basically refers to an approach to the study of language which considers a language to be primarily the system of relations, i.e., the place of every element in language (speech sound, words etc.) is defined by the way it relates to other elements in the language. (IGNOU, 2002:23, MEG-4, Block -1)

As discussed the earlier structural linguistics and its foundation by de Sassure. Further observes

His insightful observations on language as a *system* and his treatment of language primarily as a social phenomenon became the guiding principle for structural linguistics.

(IGNOU, 2002:17, MEG-4, Block -1)

Using the Sassure's heritage of the structuralism, linguists both in the U.S. and Europe grew independently. While the European linguists perceived structuralism as

The arrangement of a whole in parts and the demonstrable coherence of these reciprocally conditioned parts in the whole.

(Benveniste, 1971:08)

For most of the American linguists structure is

The distribution of the elements as it is observed, and the capacity of these elements for association or substitution.

(Benveniste, 1971:08)

Following the methods developed by Boas in the area of structural linguistics, Sapir analysed an American-Indian Language, *Takelma*, Which helped him to current the basic principles of structuralism even before de Sassure (IGNOU, Block-1, 2002:18). Sapir formulated the structural conception of language where thing considered universality as the most striking aspects. To him

Language, as a structure, is on its inner face the mould of thought" and "[There] is no more striking general fact about language than its universality .... The lowliest of the south African bushmen speaks in the forms of a rich symbolic system that is in essence perfectly comparable to the speech of the cultivated Frenchman

(Sapir, 1921:22).

Bloomfieldian mechanism of structure was closely related to psychological theory of behaviourism which holds that one should study observable and measurable phenomenon, and should not appeal unobservable things like mind and intention. (IGNOU 2002:24) Bloomfield introduced a precise and restricted technical vocabulary for linguistic, description and initiated Immediate Constituent Analysis (ICs),

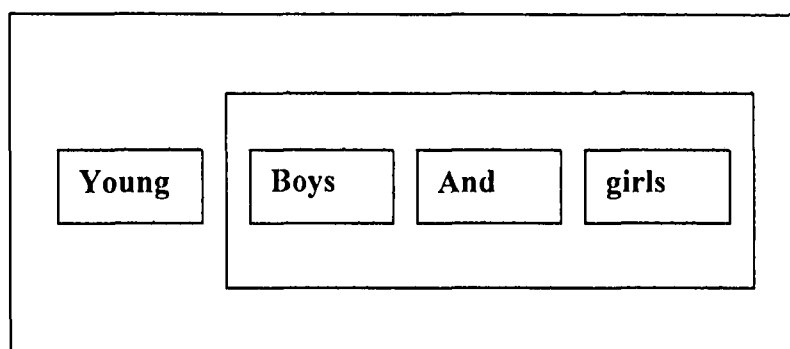
Bernar Block, Robert A. Hall, Harris and others of the *Yale School* of American linguist worked under the influence of Bloomfield. The Bloomfieldian linguists practiced I.C. Analysis as a tool for understanding the syntactic structure.

### **3.2.4 Immediate Constituent Analysis**

In order to find out the structure of linguistic units one can apply the scheme of IC analysis, where an utterance is repeatedly divided and subdivided into two parts until one arrives at the minimal elements. Thus, one arrives at the Immediate Constituents of the utterance, but one does not label them. The phrase '**young boys and girls**' can be represented as follows:

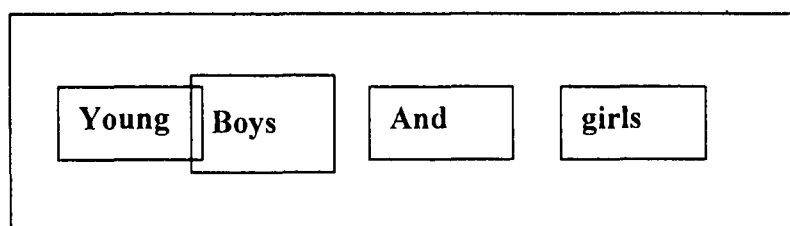
**"Young boys and girls"**

I.C. Analysis (1<sup>st</sup> Meaning: **Young boys and young girls**)



**Fig. 3. I.C. Analysis (1<sup>st</sup> Meaning: Young Boys and Young Girls)**  
**IGNOU, 2002: 24, Block-1, *Aspects of Language*)**

I.C. Analysis (2<sup>nd</sup> Meaning: **Girls and young Boys**)



**Fig. 4. I.C. Analysis (2<sup>nd</sup> Meaning: Girls and Young Boys)**  
**IGNOU, 2002: 24, Block-1, *Aspects of Language*)**

The following **extract** is taken from Jindal and Syall (1998:87-95) to furnish examples of I.C. Analysis at various levels.

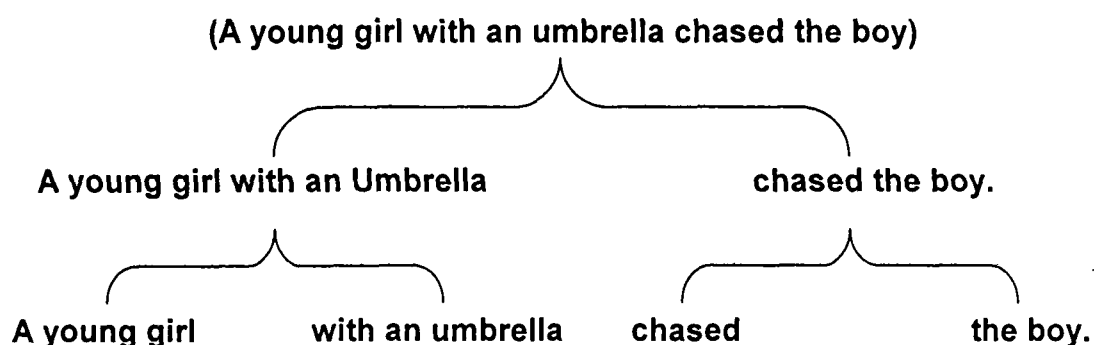
I.C. Analysis can be shown by taking a simple example of a sentence like: **“A young girl with an umbrella chased the boy”**. This sentence is made of some natural groups. From one’s intuitive knowledge of the language, the only way one may divide it into two groups is as follows:

<b>A young girl with an umbrella</b>	<b>chased the boy</b>
<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>

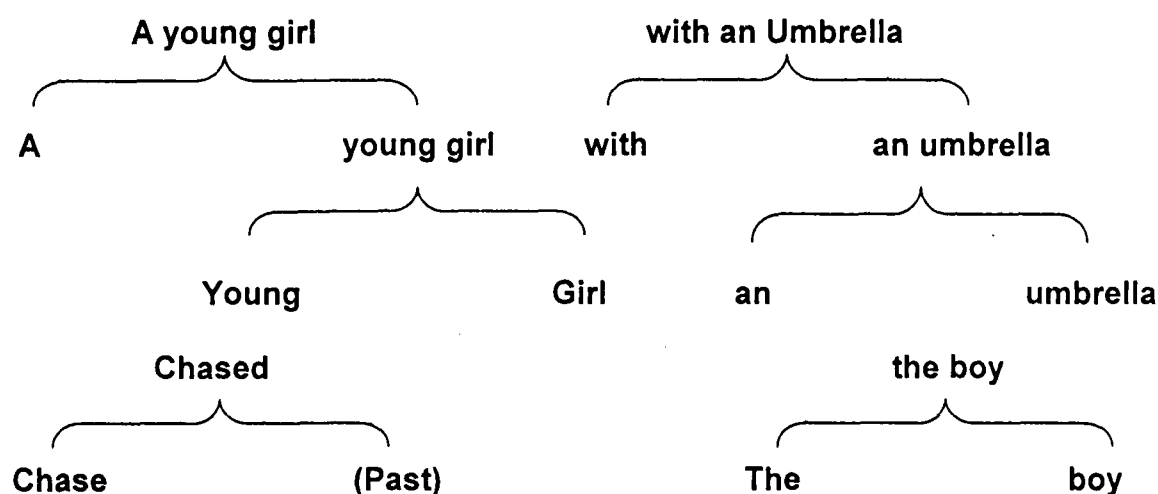
The two parts of the sentence as shown above are called constituents of the sentence. Now 1 and 2 can be further divided into natural groups as follows:

<b>A young Girl</b>	<b>with an umbrella</b>	<b>chased</b>	<b>the boy</b>
<b>1-A</b>	<b>1-B</b>	<b>2-A</b>	<b>2-B</b>

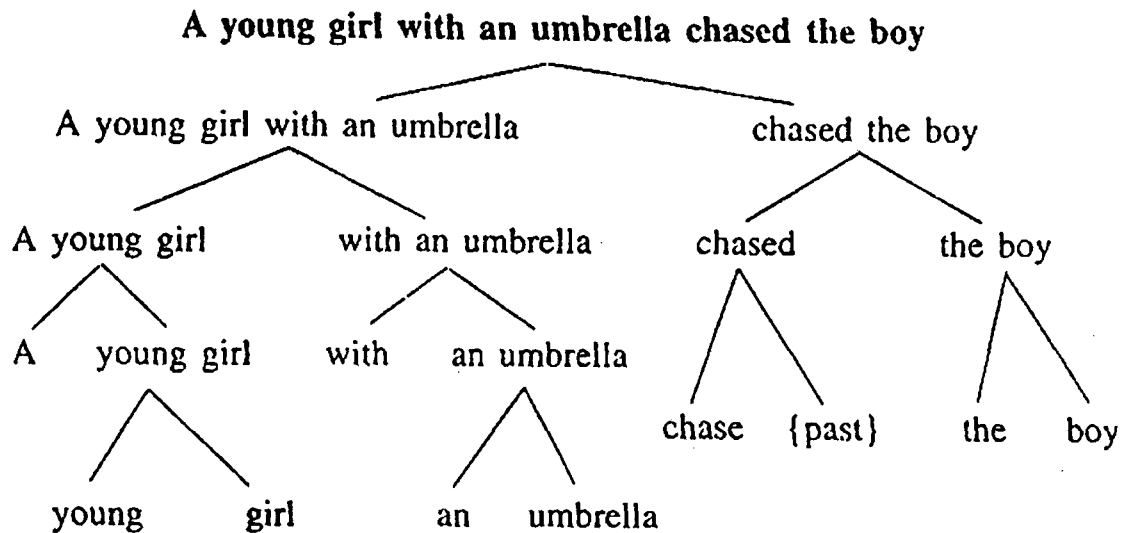
1-A and 1-B are the **constituents** of 1 while 2-A and 2-B are the constituents of 2. The above information can be displayed in the form of a **tree diagram** as follows:



Now, 1-A, 1-B, 2-A and 2-B can be further sub-divided into smaller constituents as follows:



This type of analysis of sentence is called Immediate Constituent Analysis. Every constituent is a part of a higher natural word group and every constituent is further divided into lower constituents. This process goes on till one arrives at the smallest constituent, a morpheme that can no longer be further divided. The full IC analysis of the above sentence is given below:



**Fig. 5. Tree Diagram**

These constituents can also be labelled as belonging to different grammatical constituents like Noun phrase, Verb Phrase, Adverbial, and Prepositional Phrase, which can be further divided into categories such as Noun, Adjective, Verb, and Tense, Morpheme. Different methods are used for showing the immediate constituents. Some of these are given below:

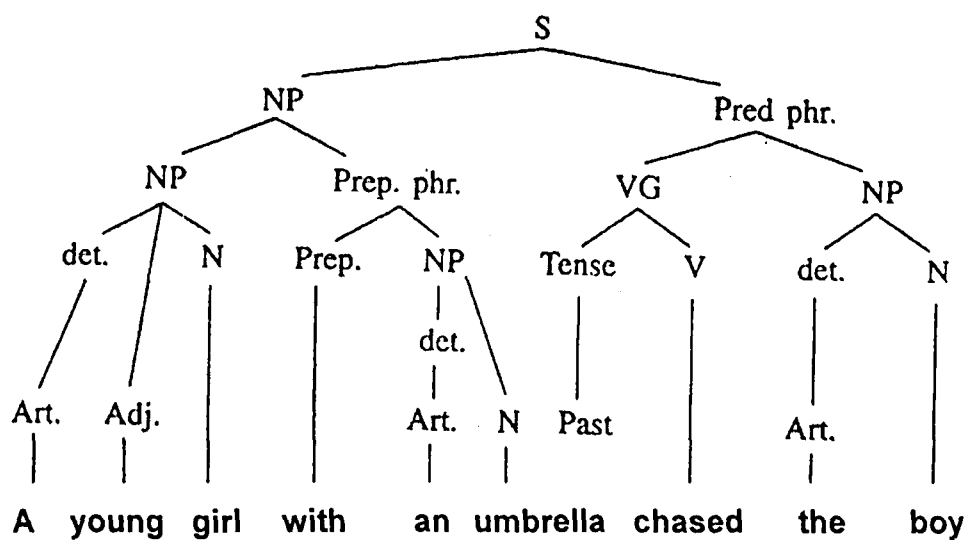
(a) Segmentation using vertical lines

A || young ||| girl || with ||| an ||| umbrella | chase ||| d || the ||| boy

(b) Segmentation using brackets

[[[A)] [(young) (girl)]] [[with] [(an) (umbrella)]]] [[[chase) (d)] [(the) (boy)]]]

(c) Segmentation using a tree diagram



**Fig. 6. Tree Diagram**



Now, the question arises as to how we should make the cuts. The answer lies in the notion of 'expansion'. A sequence of morphemes that patterns like another sequence is said to be an expansion of it. One sequence can, in such case, be replaced by another as the similar sequence patterns will appear in the same kind of environments. Here is an example of similar sequences in expansion that can fit up into the same slot:

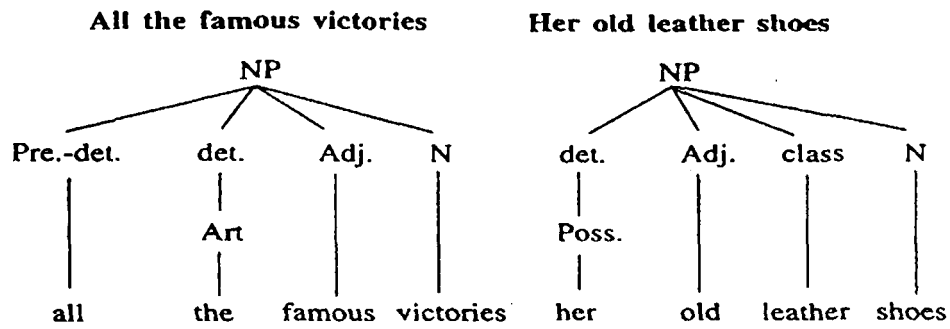
- (i) Daffodils
- (ii) Yellow daffodils
- (iii) The Yellow daffodils
- (iv) The yellow daffodils with a lovely look.

The elements (ii), (iii), (iv) are expansions in the above set, i.e. "daffodils" is the **HEAD** word, whereas the other words in (ii), (iii), and (iv) are modifiers. Incidentally, the set of examples given above can be grouped under the term **Noun Phrase (NP)**.

A noun phrase may be a single word, a single noun or pronoun, or a group of words that belong with the noun and cluster around it. A noun phrase has in it a Noun (a Head word) and certain **modifiers**. Generally a noun in a Noun phrase (optionally) has the following modifiers appearing before it in the given order:

1. Restrictor : Words like: especially, only, merely, just, almost, particularly, even
2. Pre-determiners : Words like: half, double, both, one-third, twice, all of
3. Determiners : (a) Articles: a/an, the  
(b) Demonstratives: this, that, these, those  
(c) Possessives: my, his, own, Ram's
4. Ordinals : words like: first, third, last, next
5. Quantifiers : Words like many, several, few, less
6. Adjective Phrase : good, long, tall, or intensifier and adjective, e.g. very good, or adjective and adjective, e.g. good, nice looking
7. Classifier : a **city** college  
a **leather** purse  
a **summer** dress

Here are some examples of noun phrases (shown in the form of tree diagrams) referred to above.



Here are some other examples of NP:

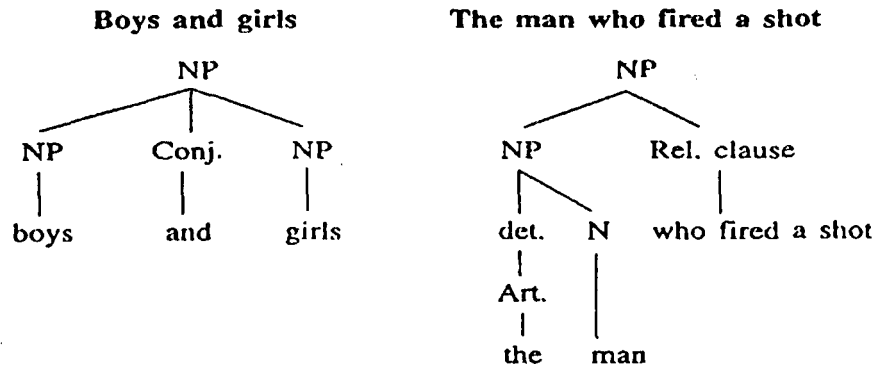
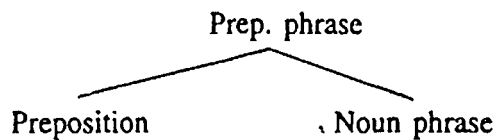


Fig. 7. Tree Diagrams

### Preposition Phrase:

A preposition phrase is a Noun phrase preceded by a preposition, i.e.



Here is an example: **On the table**

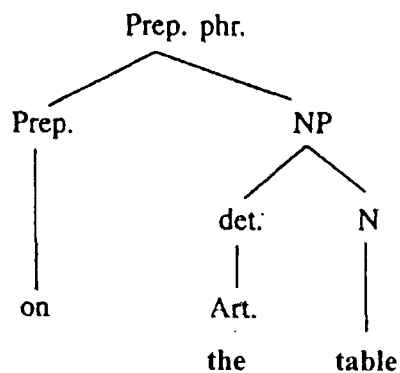
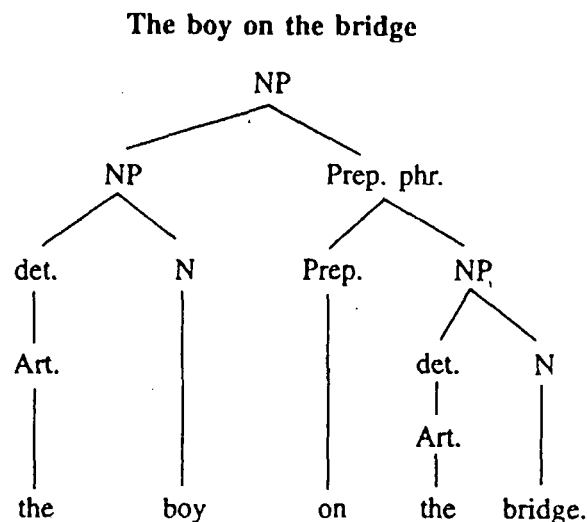


Fig. 8. Tree Diagrams

Sometimes, a Noun phrase contains a Preposition phrase embedded in it. In such cases, the Noun phrase can be broken up into NP and preposition phrase, both can then be further split up. Here is an example:



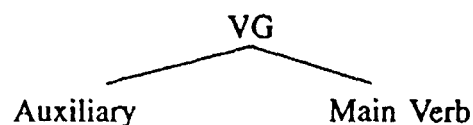
**Fig. 9. Tree Diagram**

### **The Verbal Group (VG):**

The Verbal group generally immediately follows the NP in a typical English sentence, e.g.

Ram	Plays
NP	VG
Ram	is playing
NP	VG
Ram	has been playing
NP	VG
Ram	can play
NP	VG

The main (or basic) verb in all these sentences is play. The verbal group consists of the main verb and the auxiliary.



Auxiliary, in turn, is made up of the **tense** (compulsory item) and any **one or more** of the following items:

- (i) **Modal** (marked by modal auxiliaries like can, will, shall, must).
- (ii) **Perfective** (marked by **have + en**, where **en** is a marker of the past participle morpheme).
- (iii) **Progressive** (marked by **be + ing**)

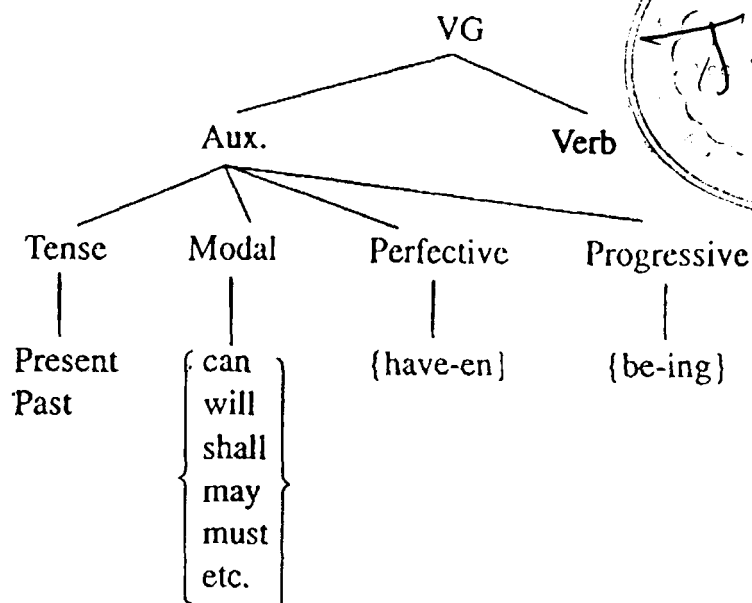


Fig. 10. Tree Diagram

It should be noted that modern linguists admit of only **two** tenses in English: Present and Past. English can express present time, past time and future time but it does not mean that it has three tense too. Look at the following sentences:

He is playing a match now

(Present tense, Present time)

He is playing a match next Sunday

(Present tense, Future time)

If I went to Bombay, I would bring a camera for you

(Past tense, future time)

Tense, it **may** be stated here, is a grammatical category seen in the **form** of **shape** of the verb. Normally, in English, tense is realized as

-e(s) (present)

-e(d) (Past)

In the expressions **will play** or **will eat**, **will** is in the present tense, the past form of which is **would**.

In a language like Sanskrit, where there are **three** tenses, these are shown in the three different **forms** the basic verb takes, while referring to the present, past or future time, e.g.,

Basic verb: (Present Tense Form) : reads

(Past Tense Form) : read

(Future Tense Form) : will read

Corresponding to this, there are only two such forms in English, e.g., plays, played.

The use of modals **shall/will** is only **one** of the mechanisms of expressing the **future time**, also will/shall do not **always** express the future times, e. g.

Sita will be at home now (present time).

Also, it should be noted that while tense and the main verb are the compulsory segments of a verbal group, the modal, the perfective and the progressive are only optional items. Given below are some model analyses of some verbal groups.

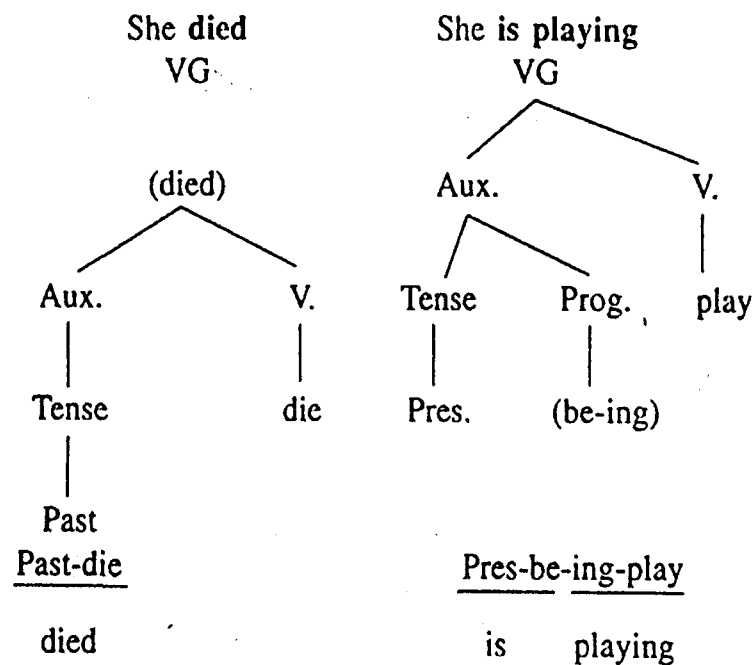


Fig. 11. Tree Diagram

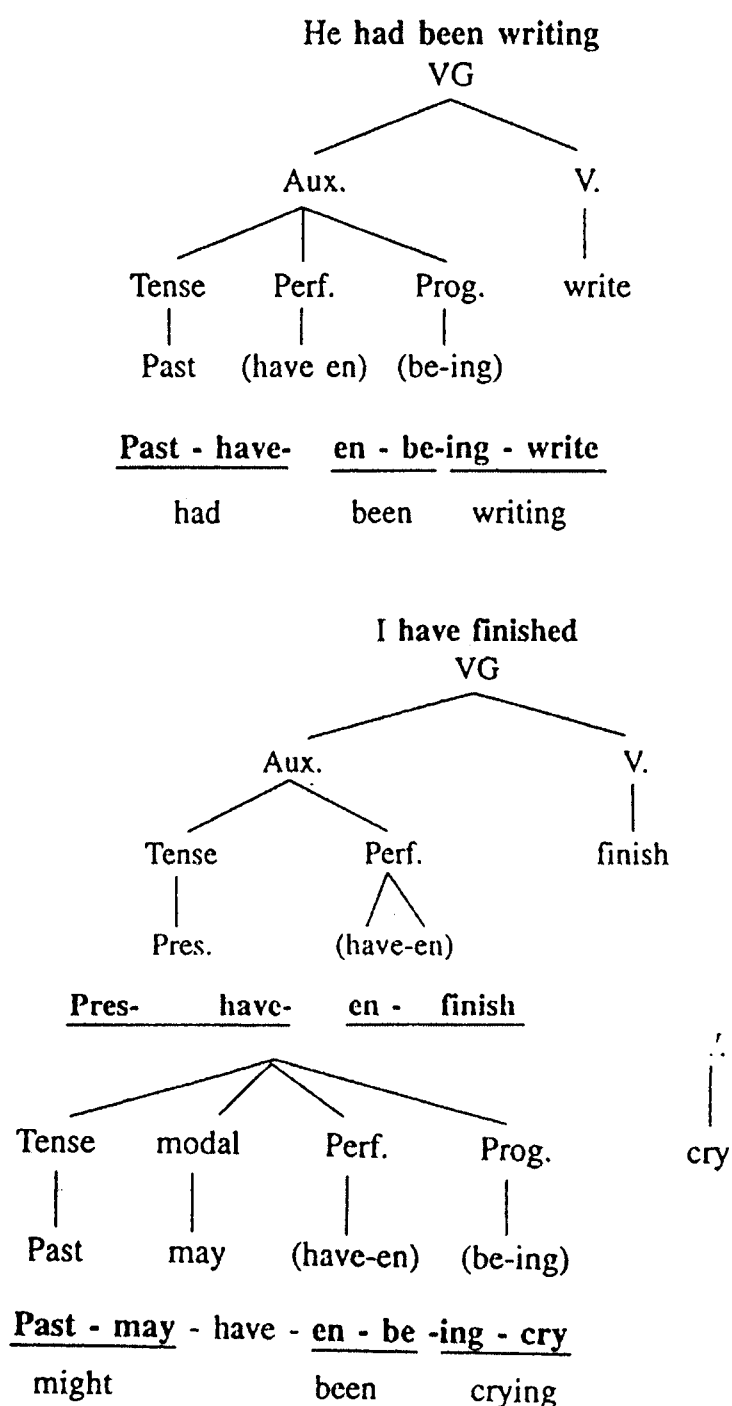


Fig. 12. Tree Diagram

### Adverbials

Any group of words that performs the function of an ADVERB is called an adverbial. It may consist of a single word, a phrase or a clause. It generally specifies time, place, manner, reason, etc., and modifies a verb, an adjective or a fellow adverb. Given below are some sentences in which the adverbials have been underlined:

She slept *soundly*.

He spoke *fluently*.

We have approached him a *number of times*.

He smokes *heavily*.

He spoke in a nice *manner*.

I shall see you *in a day or so*.

I went there *as fast as I could*.

She left home *when she was young girl*.

*Where there is a will* there is a way.

He talks *as if he were a fool*.

### IC Analysis of Sentences

A single sentence is made up of an NP (subject) and a Predicate Phrase. This predicate phrase, apart from a compulsory verbal group, may optionally have one or more Noun Phrase (s), Preposition Phrase(s), Adverbials and Adjective Phrases. Here are a few examples:

- (i) Kapil has been playing cricket for several years.

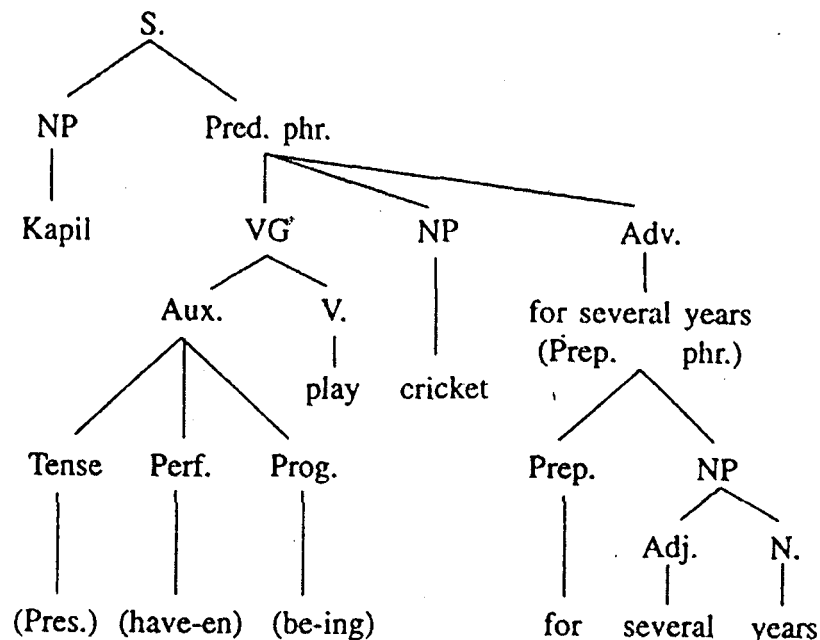
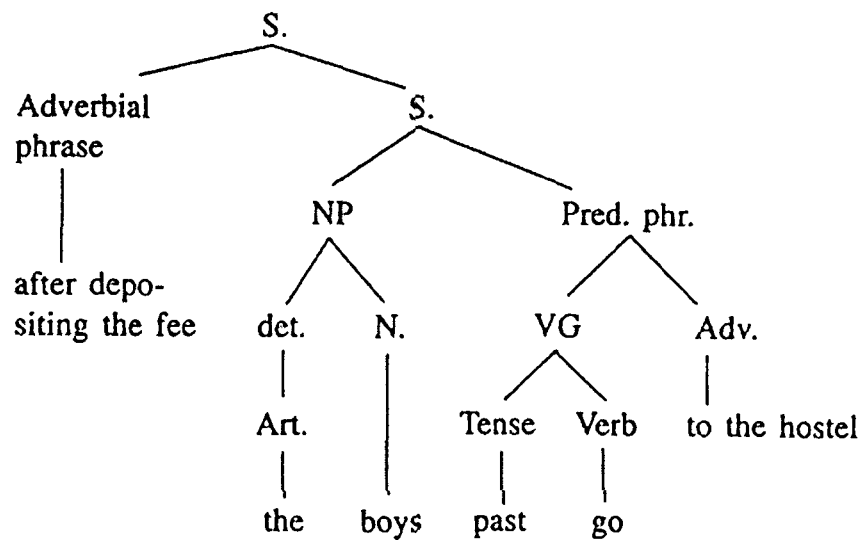


Fig. 13. Tree Diagram

(ii) After depositing the fee the boys went to the hostel.



(iii) These girls have been singing nicely.

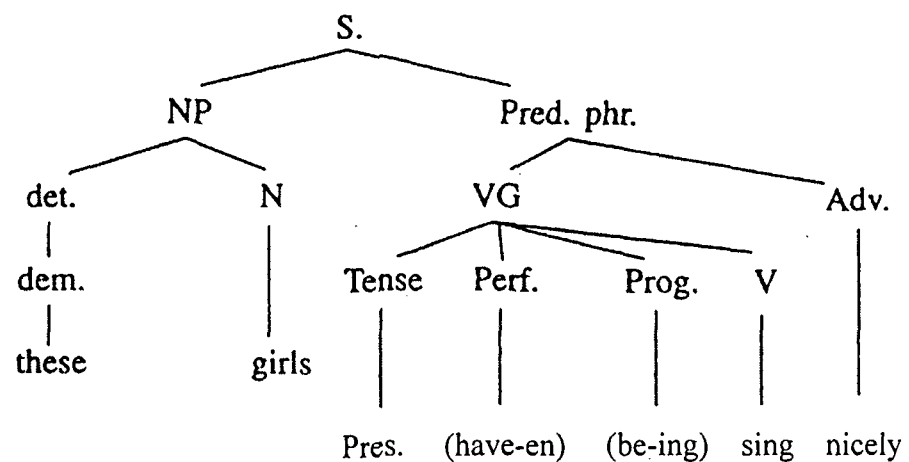


Fig. 14. Tree Diagrams

The above samples of I.C. analysis merely provide a purely formal description without using the traditional grammatical categories (Noun, Adjective, verb etc.) or even the philosophical categories of subject, predicate etc.

One of the major charges labelled against I.C. Analysis is that it fails to analyze the ambiguous sentences. Beside this it faces problem in analyzing the sentences which structurally approved to be similar but semantically they are different. An oft quoted example is available in the following pair of sentences:



1. John is easy to please
2. John is eager to please.

In view of the above limitations, Chomsky gave the concept of Phrase Structure Rules (P.S. Rules). He believed that I.C. Analysis is confined to the analysis of the sentences at surface level only. Hence in order to meet the challenges at deeper level, he initiated the Phrase Structure.

### 3.2.5 Phrase Structure Rules

Ramjiwale (1999:190) defines it as:

Phrase structure rules or grammar considers sentence as linear sequence of elements. The aim is to identify these elements for their functions and class them appropriately. This is, therefore, better viewed as an alternative system to the IC analysis.

Noam Chomsky, an American linguist brought a revolution in the field of grammar as well as in Modern Linguistics. Chomsky rejected the earlier theories/concepts mainly

Because it could not explain the speaker's ability to produce and understand new utterances. This kind of descriptions, which phrase structure grammars provided, were identical to the Post-Bloomfieldian's procedures (resembling IC analysis).

(IGNOU-MEG-4, Aspects of Language, Block-1: 28)

In *Syntactic Structures* (1957) Chomsky presented three models of grammar, such as Finite State Grammar, Phrase Structure Rules/Grammar, and Generative Grammar. The Finite State Grammar is the most basic and elementary and is full of inadequacies, the Phrase Structure Grammar/Rules takes us a long way in removing these shortcomings. The Generative Model is an extension of the PSG with an addition of more complex types of rules". (Ramjiwale, 1999:190).

The phrase structure grammar as developed by Chomsky includes the following rules:

**Symbol:** S = sentence,    NP = Noun Phrase,    VG = Verb Gerund

## Summary of Phrase – Structure Rule(s)

- (i)  $S \rightarrow NP + VP$
- (ii)  $S \rightarrow NP + \text{Predeterminer Phrase}$
- (iii)  $NP \rightarrow \text{Restrictor} - \text{Pre} - \text{Determiner} - \text{Determiner} - \text{ordinal} - \text{quantifier} - \text{adjective phrase} - \text{classifier} - \text{noun}.$

(iv)	Pre determiner Phrase $\rightarrow$ VG	—	<div style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; display: inline-block;"> NP  Prep. phrase  Adj. Phrase  Adverbial </div>
------	--	---	---

- (v)  $VP \rightarrow \text{Aux.} + V + NP$
- (vi)  $\text{Aux} \rightarrow \text{Tense} + (\text{Modal}) + (\text{Perfective}) + (\text{Progressive})$
- (vii)  $\text{Prep. Phrase} \rightarrow \text{Prep.} + NP$
- (viii)  $NP \rightarrow NP + \text{Prep. Phrase}.$

The symbols, which have been put on the left of the arrow, are known as 'non-terminal' and those in the right are known as 'terminal'. These symbols are called morphemes. The syntactic categories are used in the form of symbols such as – (s) sentence, (NP) Noun Phrase, (VP) Verb phrase, (Det)- determiner, (VG) verb group, (V) verb and so on.

In order to understand the Phrase Structure Grammar, let us apply the PS rules on the following sentence.

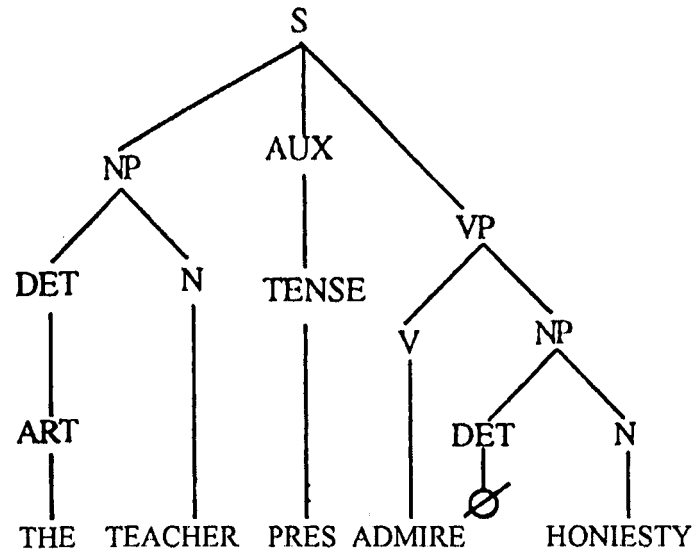
**"The teacher admires honesty"**

$S \rightarrow NP + VP$	(Rule 1)
$VP \rightarrow \text{Aux.} + V + NP$	(Rule 2)
$NP \rightarrow (\text{Det}) N$	(Rule 3)
$\text{Aux.} \rightarrow \text{Tense}$	(Rule 4)
$\text{Det.} \rightarrow \text{Article}$	(Rule 5)
$NP \rightarrow \text{Noun} \rightarrow \text{teacher, honesty}$	(Rule 6)
$\text{Tense} \rightarrow \text{present "s"}$	(Rule 7)
$\text{Article} \rightarrow \text{the}$	(Rule 8)

**“The teacher admires honesty”**

**S {The + teacher + present + admire + honesty} S**

We can represent the above analysis in a tree diagram also and reach at P. markers (Phrase Markers):.



**Fig. 15. Varshney, R.L. (2004: 159) Sentence Analysis**

This grammar enables us to decide the followings:

- (i) “The teacher admires honesty” is a grammatical sentence of the English Language.
- (ii) “The teacher” and “honesty” are noun phrase.
- (iii) “Admires” is a verb phrase.
- (iv) “Admires” is a verb: the verb is in present tense.
- (v) “Teacher” and “honesty” are nouns (Singular).
- (vi) “The” is a determiner (Article).
- (vii) The Phrase marker represents the derivation diagrammatically
- (viii) The tree, that is, the phrase Maker, is also the structural description of the sentence.
- (ix) ‘S’ is a string (sentence)
- (x) NP and VP are substrings (Phrases).
- (xi) ‘S’ dominates NP and VP. That is, S is a higher unit than NP or VP similarly, NP dominated Determiner and N.

VP dominates V and NP

N dominates 'teacher'

V dominates 'admire' and so on.

NP, VP, Aux., V, Det, N, etc. are the nodes of the tree. They are all constituents.

- (xii) The derivation shows us the elements, the operation and the resulting relation.
- (xiii) It is all explicit – nothing is left to the reader's intuition.
- (xiv) If one knows how to apply the rules of grammar, one does not have to know the language to produce grammatical sentences of the language a guarantee no other grammar can provide.
- (xv) Traditional 'parsing' and IC analysis are formulized by the grammar.
- (xvi) This grammar is different from other grammars in that it is formal system with axioms, rules of inference, theorems (sentences) and mathematical proof derivation.

The set of rules given above for the sentence. "**The teacher admires honesty**" is extremely limited in a variety of ways. For example, the set can be used to produce only a finite number of sentence, actually only from sentences:

- (1) The teacher admires honesty.
- (2) The teacher admires the teacher
- (3) Honesty admires the teacher.
- (4) Honesty admires honesty

Two of the four sentences – sentence (3) and (4) – turn out to be rather strange and second sentence is little peculiar with its two fold recurrence of "teacher". But an adequate grammar of English should not generate sentences such as (3) and (4) or if it does, should indicate in some way that these sentences are less acceptable than sentences (1) and (2). Much more series at the moment is the fact that this grammar generates few sentences. A native speaker of language can generate infinitely more sentences. So a grammar should generate **all** and **only** sentences of whatever language it is the grammar of phrase structure rules represent very explicit categorization of sentences into possible strings. The problem with the PS rules was unable to

make transformational relationship like “Ali eats a mango” and “A mango is eaten by Ali”, so P.S-Rules failed to represent such kind of relations between active and passive, statements and questions and so on.

(Chomsky 1957:44) suggests that:

The inadequacies of the phrase structure grammar for a language like English demand incorporating new rules into it. But doing that completely changes the conception of the linguistics structure. Hence the concept of a grammatical transformational” was proposed by Chomsky, which he formulated as: “a grammatically transformation + operates on a given string (or .... On a set of strings) with a given constituent structure and convert into a new string with a new derived constituent structure.

This new concept of transformation encourages all the formal approaches such as **Transformational-Generative Grammar**.

### **3.2.6 Transformational-Generative Grammar**

This term, propounded by Chomsky, is best explained by Gleason (1965:58):

The key word here is “generate”. Because of this one common designation for the approach is “Generative Grammar”. It is also referred to as “Transformational Grammar”. Neither is entirely satisfactory. It is easily possible to prepare grammars which used transformations, but which are not all generative. Moreover, grammars can be generative without the use of transformations. The best term, therefore, for a grammar of the kind advocated by Chomsky is “transformational-generative grammar.

Transformational-Generative Grammar replaced the old concept as propagated by its predecessors and presented a device to use for the analysis of a language and its grammatical systems.

Chomsky who did not reject all the previous methods and the structuralist's view, but he pointed out the weaknesses of the ICs as well as other rules to analyse language. Transformational-Generative Grammar has mentioned the Phrase Structure Rules and others which offered transformational rules, Transformational-Generative Grammar is the combination of two theoretical aspects: one is 'transformational' and the other is 'generative'.

The term 'generative grammar' points out the set of rules which state different types of language systems.

(Lyons J. 2002:125-126) states as:

The term 'generate' in the definition, is to be understood in exactly the sense in which it is used in Mathematics....Thee important point that 'generate', in this ,does not relate to any process of sentence-production in real time by speakers (or machines). A generative grammar is a mathematically precise specification of the grammatical structure of the sentences that it generates.

The term 'generative' means that grammar must generate all the grammatically possible sentences of a language, but following with rules it must be formulated by the rules and convention one by one. Lyons (2002:125) further explains that:

A Generative grammar is a set of rules which, operating upon a finite vocabulary of units generates a set (finite or infinite) or syntagms (each syntagm being composed of a finite number of units) and thereby defines each syntagm to be well-formed in the language that is characterized by the grammar. Generative grammar that one of interest to linguistics will also assign to each well formed syntagm (and re particularly to each sentence that they generate an appropriate structural **description**. The definition of 'generative grammar' given here is more general in one respect than Chomsky's. It uses the term 'syntagm', where Chomsky would use 'string' or 'sequence'. A syntagm, as we have seen, is a combination of grammatical units (or, in phonology, of elements) which are not necessarily ordered sequentially. Though Chomsky defines sentences and phrases as (structured) strings, it is quite reasonable, and indeed it is in accord with traditional conceptions, to think of them as syntagms: i.e. as sets of units brought together in a particular construction. What traditional grammar called a difference of construction will be identified in generative grammar by means of a difference in the associated structural description.

The main motto behind the formulation of the rules step by step is to provide an easiest way to form many sentences. This kind of generative notion helped those who are not perfect in the language; the grammar which was concerned with the possible sentences not possible with all actual users of sentences. This was only concerned with the finite set of sentences. Later

on this kind of notion gave birth to the 'recursion' that helped too much to form the infinite set of sentences whenever it has finite number of rules. After the explanation of all generative grammar become transformational, but it is not with the transformational. It is not all generative; How 'Kernal sentences' – deep – structure changes into transformational-surface structure. Kernel sentence is the active voice or form. This kind of sentence is known as 'deep structure'. The string of transformation applies to generate the possible sets of non kernel sentences from a kernel structure, such as:

**“Nadeem is playing cricket”** – (deep structure) this is a kernel sentence. This single kernal sentence can generate many non-kernal sentences or surface structures; Some of these are as follows:

- (i) Is Nadeem Playing Cricket?
- (ii) Where is Nadeem playing cricket?
- (iii) Cricket is not being played by Nadeem.
- (iv) Nadeem is not playing cricket.
- (v) Nadeem played cricket when he was asked.
- (vi) Can Nadeem play cricket?
- (vii) Nadeem played cricket but not Tennis.
- (viii) Why does Nadeem play only Cricket?

Another significant term in 'Transformational-generative grammar is “transformational”. It means, a transformation can be made from the deep structure to surface structure. The active sentences are known as 'kernel' and passive are the transforms'/Non-Kernel. Robins (1997:242) explains it by stating that

The transformational components consist of rules which perform a variety of functions so we will be interested in three: **First**, rules which related particular sentence types to each other, as active sentences to their passive counterparts; **Second**, a set of rules that account for morphological operations of various kinds, like number agreement between

subject and verb; **Finally**, those rules that are responsible for generating complex sentences.

McHenry, Robert (1993:485) elaborate that

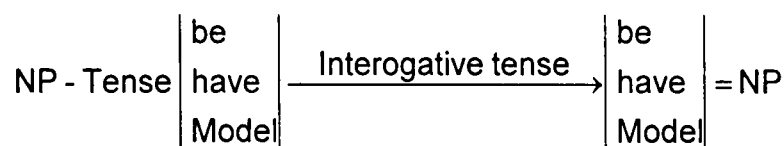
Transformational is a method of stating how the structures of many sentences in languages can be guaranteed or explained formally in languages or explained formally as the result of specific transformations applied to certain basic sentence structures. These basic sentence types or structures are not necessarily basic or minimal from the point of view of immediate constituent analysis, the transformational syntax, presupposes a certain amount of phrase structure grammar of the immediate constituent type to provide the basis or the 'Kernel' from which transformations start.

McHenry, Robert (1993:485)

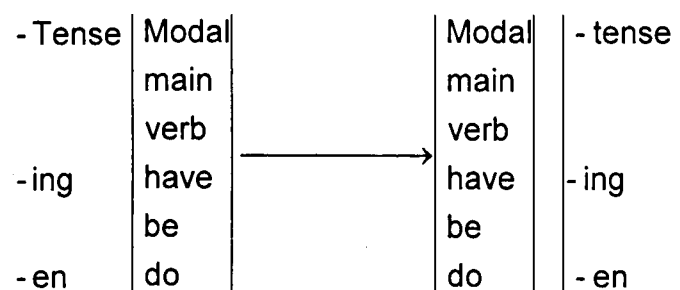
Later on Chomsky himself rejected the concept of 'Kernel' sentence in '*Syntactic Structures* (1957) and detailed it in his next publication "*Aspects of the theory of syntax*" (1965).

There are some rules which have been taken from Syall and Jindal (1998:109), as an **extract**, are as follows:

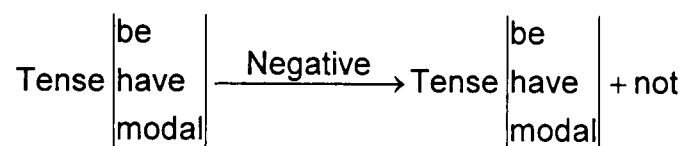
(i) **Interrogative rules**



(ii) **Affix switch rule**



(iii) **Negative rules**





(iv) **Do-Support Rule**

Tense – (NP)  $\xrightarrow{\text{Do-Support}}$  Tense – Do – (NP)

(v) **Passivisation Rule**

NP<sub>1</sub> – Aux. – V – NP<sub>2</sub>  $\xrightarrow{\text{Passivisation}}$  NP<sub>2</sub> – Aux. – be – en – v – by – NP<sub>1</sub>

These rules (T.G.Gr.) presented an overall conception of the system of language which was better than the other models of grammar. This was the big achievement in the field of linguistics.

(N.R. Cattell in Ramjiwale S. 1999:200) deals:

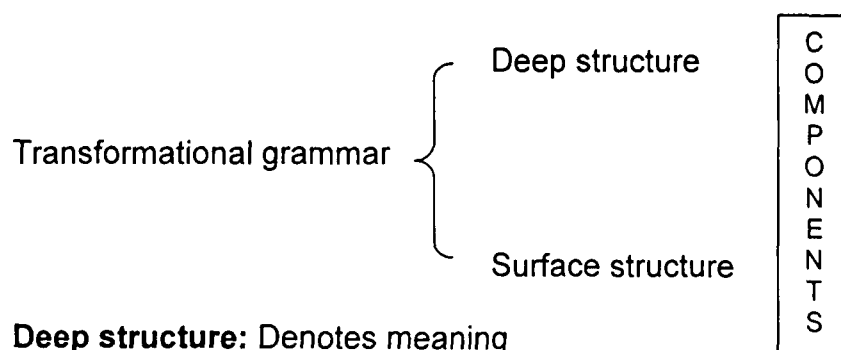
Transformational is an act of transforming one sentence into another, from the deep structure into the surface structure. Chomsky's theory claims that sentences have a *surface structure* and a *deep structure*.

This refers to another important concept as propounded by Chomsky.

**3.2.7 Deep structure and surface structure**

Chomsky stressed on (cited in Ramjiwale, 1999:204)

The notion that a sentence has a *deep structure* and a *surface structure*. There was no need now for considering the difference between obligatory and optional transformations. We rather see that transformations map the deep structures on the surface structures. Syntax is thus seen as the creative aspect of language, has two broad parts – the rules of the base and the transformations. The deep structure, which is concerned with meaning, is produced by the base 'component' while the transformational component converts it into surface structures.



**Surface structure:** Shows order of the word and has indirect relations of grammar.

Zellig Harris presented the 'Kernel' sentence, which was very close to Chomsky's deep structure and obtained sentences became the model for the surface structures. There is a kernel sentence which has been presented in the form of deep structure and Surface structure.

- (i) The boy killed the snake (kernel/deep structure)
- (ii) The snake was killed by the boy. (surface structure)
- (iii) It was the snake which was killed by the boy. (surface structure)

The relationship and all steps in the relationships between D-structure and S-structure have been called as a Transformational. Transformational grammar between 1960s & 1970 made the linguists to think differently on generative semantics, which is

An approach to linguistic theory that is given as a reaction to Chomsky's syntactic – based Transformational Generative Grammar. It considers that all sentences are generated from a semantic structure. The semantic structure is often expressed in the form of a proposition which is similar to logical propositions in philosophy. Linguists working within this theory here, for instance, suggested that there is a semantic relationship between such sentences as

*"This dog strikes me as being like his master."*

And

"This dog reminds me of his master" because

They both have the semantic structure of X perceives that Y is similar to Z.

(Richards, J. et al., 1971:119)

Generative semantics thus covered all aspects of meaning which denotes the deep structure and on the other hand speech acts with the surface structure. Generative Semantics, later moves towards Functional Grammar.

### 3.2.8 Competence and Performance

On the lines of de Saussure who gave the concept of 'langue' and 'parole', Chomsky looked at language as constituted of 'competence' and 'performance'

He believes that "competence" is Native speaker's knowledge of the language which he/she has in his/her mind, while on the other hand "performance" is the application of the knowledge of the rules in the actual language use. So the native speakers special knowledge of structure and rules of language is known as 'linguistic competence' and the style of the speakers in different situation is called 'linguistic performance'.

Competence is the specialization of speakers while whatever he/she performs in different real life contexts is his performance. To quote Syall and Jindal (1998:29) define competence as:

Competence is free from interference due to slips of memory, lapses of attention, etc., while performance reflects many such lapses. Therefore competence is ideal, and as it gives us a coherent picture of the language, it is competence that can be studied whereas it is difficult to get a direct, coherent record of performance.

In linguistics, competence is the ability to produce special kind of sentences of language with the help of its systematic rules, while performance is native speakers innate quality, his/her ability to represent in different context using a normal language.

### 3.2.9 Case Grammar

To meet certain lacunae in the Transformational Generative Grammar, Fillmore introduced the case grammar. Hence it is the modified concept of Chomsky's Transformational Grammar. This theory is the most immediately distinctive Post-Chomskyian challenge to the standard theory, Fillmore urged in a paper entitled '*The Case for Case*', that the most valid grammatical analysis of a sentence considered the constituents of each clause as *case*, *place*, *instrument*, *agent* and so on, (Ramjiwale 1981:241). Fillmore did not only make a substantive modification, but he also presented his view about

the clause and the categories used by Chomsky which were unable to account the functions of the classes and categories. The short coming in Transformational Generative Grammar is expressed clearly by McHenry and Robert (1993:65):

Chomsky (1965), the later model was unable to account for the functions of clause items as well as for their categories, it did not show, for instance, that expressions like *in the room, towards the moon, on the next day, in a careless way, with a sharp knife and by my brother*, which are the category prepositional phrase, simultaneously indicate the functions, location, direction, time, manner, instrument, and agent respectively. Fillmore suggested that the problem would be solved if the underlying syntactic structure of prepositional phrases were analysed as a sequence of a noun phrase and an associated prepositional case – marker, both dominate by the case symbol indicating the thematic role of that prepositional phrase.

(McHenry and Robert, 1993:65)

Krishnaswamy and Verma (1998:184-5) further explain about the new trends:

Generative semantics accepts the notion of transformation and attempts to account for differences in surface structures in terms of the differences in the propositions in deep structures. Charles Fillmore, one of the exponents of generative semantics, in the later 1960s developed alternative model called 'Case Grammar'. Case grammar too accepts the notion of transformation and attempts to account for differences in surface structures in terms of case relations in deep structures. Both the theories were motivated by the desire to represent as much semantic information as possible in the deep structure as possible in the deep structure; as a result the deep structure became the semantic representation.

Fillmore's Case Grammar model can thus be seen as an attempt to provide a concrete and valuable notion of grammatical relationships. But Case Grammar failed to break up, the lexical elements which work in many semantic contexts. It is the gist of semantic point of view which has a close concentration with the syntactic structure of the sentence that formed a beautiful, effective and useful case model for the language description.

### 3.2.10 Functional Grammar

In the history of grammar studies, the introduction of the concept of "Functional Grammar" once again revolutioned the attitude and approach to grammar. It is as remarkable a change as the introduction of 'structuralism' which replaced traditional/historical grammar. Functional grammar is significant because it replaces structuralism or language forms by the concept of language function.

Functional grammars therefore, focuses on contextualized knowledge of language and treats form and function as a dialectic unity.

Functional grammar is one of the grammatical notions that was developed in 1970s as a reaction to Chomskian theory based on structuralism. The functional grammar which was slightly different from the previous concept of structuralism and focused mainly on functions in correct speech. As per Malmkjaer, Kirsten (1991:141)

A functional grammar is essentially a "Natural" grammar. In the sense that everything in it can be explained, ultimately by reference to how language is used. Halliday's functional grammar is not a formal grammar; indeed, he opposed the term 'functional' to the term 'formal'... Haliday's functional grammar begins from the premise that language has certain functions for its users as a social group so that it is primarily sociolinguistic in nature.

Functional grammar is incidental, which is picked up by the learners unconsciously by initiation or consciously by observation. In the very beginning when the learners start forming sentences they face many problems in this way. Thereafter, they start to learn grammatical rules. This disguised and unformulated grammar is known as 'Functional grammar'. The main focus of functional grammar is to make learners competent both in spoken as well as in written aspects of language. It emphasizes on accuracy and to improve the fluency of learners.

Halliday, later on looked at the two previous models of grammar, while he worked on the 'scale and category of grammar', by which a new idea 'Systemic Grammar' came into existence. This new concept did not present

the actual language use, but showed the path to language use by choice conditionally.

The Functional Grammar is basically premised on Halliday's seven types of language functions as given below (as in Brown 1987:203):

1. The Instrumental Function serves to manipulate the environment, to cause certain events to happen. Sentences like "this court finds you guilty", "on you mark, get set, go!" or "Don't touch the stove" have an instrumental function; they are communicative acts which bring about a particular condition.
2. The Regulatory Function of language is the control of events. While such control is sometimes difficult to distinguish from the instrumental function, regulatory functions, of language are not so much the "unleashing" of certain power, as the maintenance of control. "I pronounce you guilty and sentence you to three years in prison" serves an instrumental function, but the sentence "upon good behaviour, you will be eligible for parole in ten months" serves more of a regulatory function the regulation of encounters among people – approval, disapproval, behaviour control, setting laws and rules, are all regulatory features of language.
3. The Representational Function is the use of language makes statements, convey facts and knowledge, explain, or report – that is, to "represent" reality as one sees it. "The sun is hot", "The president gave a speech last night", or even, "The world is flat" all serve representational functions though the last representation may be highly disputed.
4. The Interactional Function of language serves to ensure social maintenance. "Phatic communion", Mahnowskis term referring to the communicative contract between and among human beings that simply allows them to establish social contact and to keep channels of communication open, five parts of the interactional function of language. Successful interactional communication

requires knowledge of slang jargon, jokes Folklore, cultural moves, politeness and formality expectations, and other keys to social exchange.

5. The Personal Function allows a speaker to express feelings, emotions, personality, "gut-level" reactions. A person individuality is usually characterized by his or her use of the personal function of communication in the personal nature of language, cognition, effect and culture all interact in ways that have not yet been explored.
6. The Heuristic Function involves language used to acquire knowledge, to learn about the environment .Heuristic functions are often conveyed in the form of questions that will lead to answers. Children typically make good use of the heuristic function in their incessant "why" questions about the world around them. Enquiry is a heuristic method of eliciting representations of reality from others.
7. The Imaginative Function serves to create imaginary systems or ideas. Telling fairy tales, joking, or writing a novel are all uses of the imaginative function. Using language for the sheer pleasure of using language – as in poetry tongue twisters, puns – are also instances of imaginative functions. Through the imaginative dimension of language we are free to go beyond the real world to soar the heights of the beauty of language itself, and through that language to create impossible dreams if we so desire. These seven different functions of language are neither discrete nor mutually exclusive.

### **3.2.11 Systemic Grammar**

The basic concept is that of 'system', which means a set of options or choices together with an entry condition, such that if the entry condition is satisfied one option from the set must be selected. To each of these options is attached a realization statement showing the mechanisms by which these

choices are realized in the language. The grammar itself takes the form of a series 'system net-works'. It has therefore come to be called 'systemic grammar'. Systemic grammar is a refined model of Halliday's earlier model of grammar called **Scale and Category Grammar**, in which he used a set of four categories (units, structure, class, and system) and four **scales** (rank, exponence, realization and delicacy). Thakur, D. (1998: 146) states as

Systemic Grammar is the name given to the work done by Michael Halliday and his associates in the realm of grammatical description and theory. This theory specifies three levels, four categories and three scales for describing how a language operates. The levels needed for describing a language are the levels of form, substance and context. The substance is the material of language. In the case of spoken language this material is phonic substance manifesting itself as audible noises and in the case of written language it is graphic substance manifesting itself as written symbols. The form is the organization of the phonic or the graphic substance into meaningful linguistic events. Form can be further analysed in terms of the two related levels of lexis and grammar.

Richards J. et al. (1992:286) rightly explains and exemplifies the concept in following lines:

Halliday here is mainly concerned with "how language operates". The main focus of his concept is to bring a system in grammar. On the other hand this is an approach to grammatical analysis which is based on a series of systems. Each system is a set of options of which one must be chosen at each relevant point in the production of an utterance. For example, in English, the speaker or writer makes choices, among the systems of number: singular or plural; tense, past, present or future; mood, declarative, interrogative, or imperative, and many others, choices made in the sentence:

***"She jumped"***

Includes:

Singular, third person, and feminine (for she) past, active, and action process (for jumped).

Richards J. et al. (1985:286)

Traditional grammarians were using 'word' as a unit of interest, while structuralist believed unit of interest to 'Morpheme' and Halliday and his followers used 'sentence' as central and minimal unit of language and considered 'paragraph' as the biggest unit of language Systemic Grammar



has two components like 'systemic' and 'structural' as the previous trends used to have. Thus we see that the two basic components of the Systemic Grammar point to what happens at the surface level and deep level. At the surface level we see 'a network of realization statement, which are surface manifestations of underlying choices, where structure is an out-put device, the mechanism for expressing the choices that have been made'. A sentence from this point of view is characterized by features that lie at a deeper level. Structures of these features overlap are super-imposed on one another and are actualized when a speaker makes selection according to the needs of the context. It must be understood that the features lying at the deeper level are not language specific, but are universal.

Ramjiwale (1999:238-9) presents the following analysis of Systemic Grammar for the following sentence:

**"Mike has written a letter"**

1. Transitivity structure: Actor (Mike) + Process (has written) + Goal (a Letter).
2. Mood structure: Subject (Mike) + Predicator (has written) + object (a letter)
3. Structure in terms of Constituents Classes: NP1 (Mike) + VP (has written) + NP2 (a Letter)
4. Information focus structure: Given (Mike has written) + New (a letter)
5. Theme structure: Theme (Mike) + Rheme (has) written a letter.

To elaborate on the *Theme* and *Rheme* components, we can say that the part of the clause which has a thematic status is put first. It is the 'point of departure for the message'. The part in which the theme is developed is called the *Rheme* in Prague school terminology.

(Ramjiwale, 1999: 238-39).

### 3.2.12 Prague School of Thought

Prague school, a school of Thoughts in the Capital of Czech, came up in the 1920s under the hands of prominent figures such as Trubetzkoy, Jakobson, Karl Buhler Vilem Mathesius, Josef Vachek, Jan Firbas, and others. The above linguists, psychologists, scholars and professors worked under the influence of this School of Thought. The Prague school is the major school of structural linguistics.

Lyons (2002:224) describes this school of thought in following words:

The Prague school has always acknowledged its debt to Sassurean structuralism, although it has tended to reject sassure's point of view on certain rules issues, especially on the sharpness of the distinction between synchronic and diachronic linguistics and on the homogeneity of the language-system.

It was in phonology that the parague school first made its impact. In fact, the notion of functional contrast, which was involved above in drawing the distinction between phonetics and phonology, is essentially that of Trubetzkoy, whose concept of **distinctive features**, as modified by Jakobson and later by Halle (working in a collaboration with Chomsky), has been incorporated within the theory of generative phonology. But the **distinctive function** of phonetic features is only one kind of linguistically relevant function recognized by Trubetzkoy and his followers. Also to be noted are democrative function, on the one hand, and **expressive functions**, on the other.

There have been two World Wars but Prague school flourished and developed the concepts of phonology, stylistics, language, and historical linguistics.

Along with the structural, the Prague School linguists also emphasised the functional aspects of grammar, e.g. Mathesius made statements of all relationship between the grammatical and informational part of sentence which was characterized as 'theme' and 'rheme' respectively as the 'given' and 'new' information. A combination of structural and functional approaches also led the Parague linguistics to consider the functions of language in literary texts, and they initiated studies in stylistics.

Syall an Jindal (1998:46)

It was Firbas who paid attention to the functional aspects of grammar mainly on sentence. These kinds of modification reached America and formed the concepts of 'general phonology'. These concepts were under the debate till the future new ideology comes.

### **3.2.13 Communicative Grammar**

The emergence of sociolinguistics along with the theories of functions and notions of language and the concept of communicative competence (Dell Hymes) collaborated to shape new approach to grammar, which is popularly known as communicative grammar. Those who believed in communicative grammar has a fresh definition and approach to language. Language for centuries has been perceived as "A set of rules", "A system of systems", oppose to this the linguists came to believe that language is a means of communication. Hence they refused to believed that language is constituted of grammar items only. As a consequence such aspects of language as authentic language use appropriacy, acceptability, intelligibility, notions, intentions, and functions became more valid and replaced the aspect of correctibility/incorrectibility by acceptability and unacceptability. Language is looked at a social behaviour where both linguistic and para-linguistic features are to be taken care of communicative grammar, therefore was developed for the ultimate goal of communication with native speakers of the second language, centering on speaking and listening skills, on writing for specific purposes and on authentic reading texts.

The most guiding philosophy behind the above change in approach to language was the concept of communicative competence as propounded by Dell Hymes (1967, 1972), a sociolinguistics who believed that Chomsky's notion of linguistics of competence "was too limited" (Brown 1987:198). States:

In the 1970s research on communicative competence distinguished between *linguistic* and *communicative* competence (Hymes 1967, Paulston 1974) to highlight the difference between knowledge "about" language rules and forms and knowledge that enables a person to communicate functionally and interactively.

(Brown 1987:199).

Even James Conings (1979, 1980) propose a distinction between cognitive/academic language proficiency (CALP) and basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS). Here while CALP refers to the formal aspect of language, BICS focuses on the communicative capacity that one needs to communicate for everyday interpersonal exchanges. Canal and Swain (1980) identified four components that constitute the construct of communicative competence, where as the first two reflect the use of the linguistics system, the other two defined the more functional aspects of communication. These four components are being presented by Brown (1987:199-200) are as follows:

**(i) Grammatical Competence**

It is that aspect of communicative competence that encompasses knowledge of lexical items and of rules of morphology, syntax, sentence-grammar, semantics, and phonology (Canal and Swain 1980:29). It is The competence that we associate with mastering the linguistic code of a language, the "linguistic" competence of Hymes and Paulston.

**(ii) Discourse Competence**

It is the complement of grammatical competence in many ways. It is the ability we have to correct sentence in stretches of discourse and to form a meaningful whole out of a series of utterances. Discourse means everything from simple spoken conversation to lengthy written texts (articles, books, and the like) grammar, discourse competence is concerned with intersentential relationships.

**(iii) Sociolinguistic Competence**

It is the knowledge of the sociocultural rules of language and of discourse. This types of competence

“requires an understanding of the social context in which language is used: the roles of the participants, the information the share, and the function of the interaction.

**(iv) Strategic Competence**

It is a construct that is exceeding complex. Canal and Swain (1980:30) described strategic competence as “the verbal and non verbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or due to insufficient competence.

(Brown, 1987:199-200)

The concept of communicative grammar led to further theorization on the lines of communication theories. Some of which are as follows:

**3.2.13.1 Speech Act Theory**

This theory was first proposed by Austin (1962) and Later developed and systemized by, among others, Searle (1969, 1975). The essential insight of this theory is that language performs communicative acts. Austin and Searle draw distinctions between the ‘utterance acts’ (called ‘illocutionary acts’ by Austin, 1962) and the actual physical utterance of morphemes, words and sentences. A distraction has also been drawn between the propositional act’ by which the speaker refers and predicates, and the illocutionary act’ such as stating, questioning, commanding, promoting. Utterances may perform more than on function at a time. Consider the following example:

A – Can you pass the salt?

B – Pass the salt:

A’s utterances in the above example can be interpreted in two ways –

- (i) As a question about A’s ability in passing the salt.
- (ii) As a request for passing the salt.

It is the context which differentiates the two meanings.

- (i) could be associated with the tests of physical ability and
- (ii) With dinner table talk.

It has been observed that the literal meanings of words and the contexts in which they occur may interact in our knowledge of the conditions. Underlying the realization of acts can the interpretation of acts.

Speech act theory was not developed initially as a method for analyzing discourse. But certain issues like the indirect speech acts, performing multiple functions and their contexts dependence leads to its application in discourse analysis.

### **3.2.13.2 Discourse Analysis**

The term 'discourse' has been used diversely, both within linguistics and within other areas of social sciences and humanities. 'Discourse analysis' is a general term for number of approaches to analyzing language use, regardless of production form (e.g., writing, speaking and singing). The term discourse analysis first entered general use as the title of a paper published by Zellig Harris in 1952. Harris's method was more of an expansion of grammatical analysis than what is now commonly thought of as discourse analysis, and as a result this portion of his work is now largely neglected, rather than the title itself. One typical definition that is often encountered in the academic fields is that discourse is "Language above the sentence or above the clause" (Stubbs 1983:01).

But this is only one way of looking at discourse. According to Fasold (1990:65). "The study of discourse is the study of any aspect of language in use". Further Brown and Yule (1983:1) define discourse "As such, it can not be restricted to the description of linguistic forms independent of the purposes or functions which these forms are designed to serve in human affairs".

Thus, most discourse analysts following Harris have conducted work that falls under the heading of "pragmatics" in modern linguistics, rather than "syntactics", though many discourse analysts would reject linguistics tripartite division of the main characteristics of the third characteristics being

“semantics”. Discourse analysis has been taken up in a variety of disciplines including linguistics, Anthropology, sociology and social psychology each of which is subject to its own assumptions and methodologies.

### **3.2.13.3 Pragmatics**

Grice (1975:51) explains about Pragmatics:

It concentrates on those aspects of linguistic knowledge alone and takes into account knowledge about the physical and social world. H.P. Grice's well known 'co-operative principle' forms the basis of this approach. Gricean pragmatics is a contemporary version of pragmatics which focuses on 'meaning in context'. Consider the following example:

A: Smith does not seem to have a girlfriend these days.

B: He has been paying a lot of visits to New York.

(Grice, 1975:51)

There seems to be an obvious lack of connections between the above two statements. However, under normal circumstances, Grice points out that the lack of connection does not prevent us from trying to interpret B's utterance as related to A's in the sense that Smith has a girlfriend in New York. Though this meaning is not available in the meaning of the words, the listeners supplement the literal meaning of utterances with an assumption of human rationality and cooperation. This enables 'A' to infer that 'B' has implicated that 'Smith has a girlfriend in New York'. Thus, the interplay between cooperation and inference is critical to Gricean pragmatics. Grice (1975:51) proposes distinction between different types of meanings and suggests that general maxims of cooperation provide inferential routes to speakers communication intention that 'Smith has a girlfriend in New York'. Gricean pragmatics thus offers to discourse analysis a view of how participants talk with assumptions about one another and their conduct, and how they use those assumptions as a basis to draw inferences about one another's intended meaning.

Taking some examples, let us explore the different meanings of meaning and the kinds of issues which are dealt with by semantics and pragmatics. Let us take the first example from Peccei's (1999:01) explanation of what is pragmatics. He says:

- (a) A little boy comes in the front door
- (b) Mother: wipe your feet, please  
He removes his muddy shoes and socks and carefully wipes his clean feet on the doormat.  
The second example:  
A father is trying to get his three (03) years old daughter to stop lifting up her dress to display, her new underwear to the assembled-guests.
- (c) Father: We don't do that
- (d) Daughter: I know, Daddy. You do not wear dress.

As Peccei explains that in the above examples the children's knowledge of vocabulary and grammar does not seem to be the problem. In the first example, the little boy wiped his feet when his mother told him to do so whereas in the second example, the daughter replies that his father is not participating in the show in perfect grammar and impeccable logic. The problem here lies in the children's understanding of the words but not what their parents meant. Peccei says that as adults, we usually arrive at the speaker's meaning so effortlessly that we tend to be unaware of the considerable amount of skill and knowledge that we used to accomplish this.

The above discussion on the concept of communicative grammar and its off-shoots in the form of discourse analysis and pragmatics is sufficient enough to suggest that approach to language/grammar in the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century witnessed a major shift in the place, scope, role, attitude, and output of grammar at the philosophical level.

### **3.3 SUMMING UP**

In the present chapter an attempt has been made to track the major shifts in grammar over the centuries at the philosophical level. It was observed that the grammarians, rhetoricians and the philosophers in the initial phase of grammar studies in the ancient Greece argued, discussed and debated on the issues pertaining to origin of language and its scope. The Greeks looked at language as a part of logic and philosophy and mainly propagated to maintain the sanctity and purity of the language. This was tools of all the classical languages. The aspect of irregularity in language came only later. They also debated for long on language being a part of nature or as an entity governed by conventions. The Greeks are known for deciphering the



grammatical rules of their language on the basis of the rhetorician text of their time.

The philosophies, concepts, propositions and the grammar rules of their language were continued to be discussed and debated by the Romans. The grammar studies were formalized by the Romans for their practical purposes specially teaching of the Latin language. With due course of the time grammar was considered to the part of rhetoric and was on timed until the end of the medieval age of Europe when renaissance arrived and various vernacular language of Europe started emerging as at local levels. But Latin dominated the European countries for centuries as the language of the Church. By 17<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup> century Britain emerged as imperial with the expansion of the English language power with its great literary tradition, over its glories for various Administrative and business purposes. Looking these historical perspectives one can easily realized that the development of grammar studies of the vernacular languages of Europe, including English, was developed under the influence of the Latin models. The concepts of IC. Analysis, Phrase Structure and Transformational-Generative Grammar are some major contributions.

Then, there came the group of linguistics and grammarian who did not look at language merely as a set of rules rather than they came to believe that languages has to perform certain roles, function in the society. Hence the concept of linguistic competence as propounded by Chomsky was extended by Dell Hymes in the name of communicative competence which was supported and strengthen by the list of language functions provided by Halliday and such other theories as Discourse Analysis and Pragmatics.

The present chapter therefore, traces the arguments and counter arguments at philosophical level that consolidated and helped in developing the deep line of grammar/language studies, which was basically premised on the studies developed by the Greek masters.

The Nineteenth century witnessed the emergence of new revolutionary ideas and philosophies that brought in a change in the very perspective of grammar studies. Languages and then grammatical rules started to be freshly

defined and categorized. Though by the Nineteenth century many, books pertaining to grammar had been developed, Ferdinand de saussure came up with his new concepts about language and its structure. His concepts of 'langue' and 'parole', 'synchornic' and 'diachronic' and 'syntagmatic' and 'paradigmatic' introduced a new outlook to grammar studies and attracted many followers. The idea of 'structuralism' propounded by de Sassure was later extended by Bloomfield and Chomsky. Though they followed the structural school, they also came up with their original and philosophical points of views about language and grammar.

## REFERENCES

1. Dineen, F.P. (1967) *An Introduction to General Linguistics*, 5<sup>th</sup> edition, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York.
2. Dineen, F.P. (1967) *An Introduction to General Linguistics*, 5<sup>th</sup> edition, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York.
3. (<http://www.perseus.tufts.edu/greekscience/students/jordana/logic.html>).
4. (<http://www.qflpc.com.cn/jxjzx/show.uspx?id=24&cid=13>)
5. (<http://www.personal.ecu.edu/southardo/history.rtf>)
6. (<http://www.personal.ecu.edu/southardo/history.rtf>)
7. Dineen, F.P. (1967) *An Introduction to General Linguistics*, 5<sup>th</sup> edition, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York.
8. Jindal, D.V. and Syall Pushpinder (1998) *An Introduction to Linguistics: Language Grammar and Semantics*, Prentice-Hall of India, Pvt. Ltd. New Delhi, India.
9. Crystal, David (1997) *The Cambridge Encyclopaedia of Language*, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, Cambridge University Press, U.K
10. Dineen, F.P. (1967) *An Introduction to General Linguistics*, 5<sup>th</sup> edition, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York.
11. Robins R.H (1967) *General Linguistics: An Introductory Survey*, Longman, London.
12. Charles Hurtung (1962) The Persistence of Grammar. In Allen, H.B (1964), *Readings in Applied Linguistics*, Appleton-Century Craft, New York.
13. ([http://ling.kgw.tu-berlin.de/lexicography/data/B\\_HIST\\_EU.html](http://ling.kgw.tu-berlin.de/lexicography/data/B_HIST_EU.html))
14. ([http://ling.kgw.tu-berlin.de/lexicography/data/B\\_HIST\\_EU.html](http://ling.kgw.tu-berlin.de/lexicography/data/B_HIST_EU.html))
15. Robins, R.H. (1997) *A Short History of Linguistics*, 4<sup>th</sup> edition, Longman, London.

16. Wilkins, D.A. (1985), *Linguistics in Language Teaching* Edward Arnold. 41 Bedford Square, London.
17. Hockett, Charles, F.(1958) *A Course in Modern Linguistics*, Macmillan, New York.
18. Sassure, Ferdinand de, (1959), (tr. of 1 1916 work), *Course in General Linguistics*, Philosophical Library, New York.
19. Sassure, Ferdinand de, (1959), (tr. of 1 1916 work), *Course in General Linguistics*, Philosophical Library, New York.
20. Sassure, Ferdinand de, (1959), (tr. of 1 1916 work), *Course in General Linguistics*, Philosophical Library, New York.
21. IGNOU (2002) *Aspects of Language: What is Language?* MEG-4, Block-I, IGNOU, New Delhi.
22. IGNOU (2002) *Aspects of Language: What is Language?* MEG-4, Block-I, IGNOU, New Delhi.
23. Benveniste, E. (1971) *Problems in General Linguistics*. In IGNOU (2002) *Aspects of Language: What is Language?* MEG-4, Block-I, IGNOU, New Delhi.
24. Benveniste, E. (1971) *Problems in General Linguistics*. In IGNOU (2002) *Aspects of Language: What is Language?* MEG-4, Block-I, IGNOU, New Delhi.
25. Sapir, E. (1921) *Language*, Harcourt, Brace & World, New York.
26. IGNOU (2002) *Aspects of Language: What is Language?* MEG-4, Block-I, IGNOU, New Delhi.
27. Jindal, D.V. and Syall Pushpinder (1998) *An Introduction to Linguistics: Language Grammar and Semantics*, Prentice-Hall of India, Pvt. Ltd. New Delhi, India.
28. Ramjiwale, S. (1999) *Elements of General Linguistics*, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, Vol.1, Rama Brothers, New Delhi.

29. IGNOU (2002) *Aspects of Language: What is Language?* MEG-4, Block-I, IGNOU, New Delhi.
30. Chomsky, N. (1957) *Syntactic Structures*, Mouton, New York.
31. Gleason, H.A. (1965) *Linguistics and English Grammar*, Holt, Rinehart, New York.
32. Lyons, J. (2002) *Language and Linguistics: An Introduction*, Cambridge University Press, New York.
33. Lyons, J. (2002) *Language and Linguistics: An Introduction*, Cambridge University Press, New York.
34. Robins, R.H. (1997) *A Short History of Linguistics*, 4<sup>th</sup> edition, Longman, London.
35. Malmkjaer, Kirsten (Ed.), (1991) *The Linguistics Encyclopaedia*, Routledge, London.
36. Verma, S.K. and Krishnaswamy, N. (1998) *Modern Linguistics an Introduction*, Oxford University Press, 7<sup>th</sup> edition, New Delhi.
37. Malmkjaer, Kirsten (Ed.), (1991) *The Linguistics Encyclopaedia*, Routledge, London.
38. Brown D.H. (1987) *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*, Englewood Cliffs, Prentice-Hall, New Jersey.
39. Thakur, D. (1998) *Linguistics, Simplified: Syntax*, Bharti Bhawan, Patna.
40. Richards J. et al. (1992) *Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics*, Longman, London.
41. Ramjiwale, S. (1999) *Elements of General Linguistics*, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, Vol.1, Rama Brothers, New Delhi.
42. Lyons, J. (2002) *Language and Linguistics: An Introduction*, Cambridge University Press, New York.
43. Jindal, D.V. and Syall Pushpinder (1998) *An Introduction to Linguistics: Language Grammar and Semantics*, Prentice-Hall of India, Pvt. Ltd. New Delhi, India.

44. Brown D.H. (1987) *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*, Englewood Cliffs, Prentice-Hall, New Jersey.
45. Brown D.H. (1987) *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*, Englewood Cliffs, Prentice-Hall, New Jersey.
46. Stubbs, M. (1983) *Discourse Analysis: The Elements of Style*, Macmillan, New York.
47. Fasold, R.W. (1984) *Sociolinguistics of Society* , Basil Blackwell, Oxford.
48. Grice H.P. (1975). *Logic and Conversation*. In Deborah schiffrin (rpnt.), (2005) *Approaches to Discourse: Language as Social in Interaction*, Blackwell U.K.
49. Peccei, J. S. (1999). *Pragmatics: Foreign Language Teaching and Research*; Routledge. London.

# **CHAPTER – 4**

## CHAPTER – 4

### GRAMMAR DEBATE: PEDAGOGIC LEVEL

#### 4.0 INTRODUCTION

Having observed the historical overview of grammar and the philosophical wranglings of the grammarians in the earlier respective chapters, it will not be erroneous to state that for centuries grammar has been a popular subject of study among civilizations and hence it has always been taught in various shapes and size for various purposes. In the beginning, for instance, the grammar of Greek and other classical languages were studied to find out the origin and various constituents of the language. The main purpose of such studies was to analyze the literary texts and also to maintain the purity of language. The trend of maintaining the purity of language can be witnessed till date in the Sanskrit language, because of which perhaps it has become a dead language in the technical sense of the term.

The Greek philosophies regarding grammar was adopted by the Romans. With the proliferation of Latin as the language of the church in the European countries, the need for teaching Latin emerged. Consequently researchers of the time started to analyze language and its constituent rules for the purpose of pedagogy. Hence series of books on grammar of Latin started to be written. Some such examples are: Donatus Aelius *Ars grammatica* (4<sup>th</sup> Century A.D.); Priscianus Calsariensis's *Institutiones grammaticae* (6<sup>th</sup> Century A.D.); Nebrija's. *Grammatica de la Langua Castellana* (1492).

This trend of studying language which initiated the development of grammar books by the Latin became a model for the other European countries, when their respective vernacular languages started to establish their status. The phenomenon can be witnessed in the following books on grammar:



Bishop's *A short Introduction to English Grammar* (1761), Ben Johnson's *English Grammar* (1762), Robert Lowth's *A Short Introduction to English Grammar* (1762), Lindley Murray's *English Grammar* (1795), Lindley Murrey's *English Grammar* (1837), Roseweel C. Smith's *English Grammar on the Productive System* (1843), Gold Brown's *Grammar of English Grammars* (1851), William Dwight Whitney's *Language and the Study of Language* (1867), Henry Sweet's *A New English Grammar* (1891). and *The Life and Growth of Language* (1874), Handrik Routsma's *A Grammar of Late Modern English*, (1904-1929), Leonard Bloomfield's *Introduction to the Study of Language* (1914) *Language* (1933), and Joseph Priestley's *Rudiments of English Grammar*, Charles C. Fries's *American English Grammar* (1940), and *The Structure of English Grammar* (1952), Randolph Quirk's *A Grammar of Contemporary English* (1972), Quirk and Greenbaum's *A Communicative Grammar of English* (1973), Leech and Stuart's *A Comprehensive Grammar of English* (1975), Sydney Greenbaum's *Comprehensive Grammar of English Language* (1985).

Such a phenomenon of series of grammar books for language teaching does not mean that researches in language at conceptual and philosophical level stopped. Rather it shows that language studies became more popular, active, and intense at both philosophical and pedagogic levels. Later with the emergence of linguistics and the advancement in various related areas the pedagogic grammar was further refined. It is important to mention here that the multiplicity of theories and concepts over the ages generated intense debate at pedagogic level.

In the present chapter, therefore, it is intended to understand the meaning of grammar, the concepts of pedagogic grammar and also to understand the various influences that ignited the grammar debate at the pedagogic level.

#### **4.1 MEANING OF GRAMMAR**

In order to understand the grammar debate at pedagogic level, it is important first to know the meaning of the term 'grammar' in recent times.

The word 'grammar' leaves different impacts on different minds. While it appears to be boring and mechanical to students, it projects the grammarian as dull and drab a person. Interestingly the word 'grammar' is etymologically related to the word 'glamour'. In the present time such an etymological relationship appears to be false. "rules by which words change their forms and are combined into sentences". CIEFL. (1995:2, Block-1, Unit-1).

Some definitions of grammar as per the major Dictionaries are as follows:

Grammar is the ways that words can be put together in order to make sentences. A grammar is a book that describes the rules of grammar when they write or speak.  
(*Collins Cobuild English Dictionary*, 1995:732)

A description of the structure of a language and the way in which linguistic units such as words and phrases are combined to produce sentences in the language. It usually takes into account the meaning and functions, these sentences have in the overall system of the language.  
(*Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics*, 1971:124)

The rules in a language for changing the form of words and joining them into sentences: the basic rules of grammar" on the other hand Grammar is define as "A person's knowledge and use of a language.  
(*Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*, 2005: 675)

The science of language; a system of general principles for speaking and writing according to the forms and usage of language; a text book for teaching the elements of language.  
(*New Webster's Dictionary and Thesaurus of Medical Dictionary*, 1991:172)

The accepted rules by which words are formed and combined into sentences. The branch of language study dealing with these. A description of these rules has applied to a particular language  
(*Chambers 21<sup>st</sup> Century Dictionary*, 2004:582)

The systematic analysis of the classes and structure of words (morphology) and of their arrangements and interrelationships in larger constructions (syntax).  
(*Webster Illustrated Contemporary Dictionary Encyclopedia*, 1978:309)

1a: the study of classes of words, their inflections, and their functions and relations in the sentence b: a study of what is to be preferred and what avoided in inflection and syntax.

(*Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary*, 2001:505)

Rules of language the system of rules by which words are formed and put together to make sentences. PARTICULAR SET OF LANGUAGE RULES the rules for speaking or writing a particular languages or a specific Analysis of the rules of language. QUALITY OF LANGUAGE the spoken or written form of language somebody uses, as related to accepted standards of correctness. GRAMMAR BOOK a book dealing with the grammar of a language. ANALYTICAL SYSTEM a systematic treatment of the elementary principles of a subject and their interrelationships.

(*Bloomsbary's Concise English Dictionary*, 2005:623)

The above definitions in general refer to 'grammar' as something that tells of the rules, forms and structure of a language. But 'grammar' at the same time also suggests some diverse meanings. Let us look at the following meanings as given in (CIEFL, 1995: 3, Block-1, Unit-1).

1. 'Grammar' means a subject of study included into curriculum.
2. 'Grammar' refers to particular book of grammar.
3. 'Grammar' refers to particular area of study within language which can be differentiated from vocabulary spelling punctuation etc.
4. 'Grammar' refers to a particular linguistics theory fro example Transformational Generative Grammar or Tagmemic Grammar.
5. 'Grammar' also refers to "*a consciously learned and explicit set of rules and principles.*"

Apart from this grammar is often said to be 'acquired' or internalized in the context of the mother tongue, while in the context of Second/Foreign language it is said to be 'learned'. That is, when we use our mother tongue, we unconsciously follow the set of rules and principles inherent in then, but when it comes to a foreign language we consciously learn and use the explicit set of rules.

If we distinguish the learners on the basis of their linguistic/grammar ability in a language, one can identify the following two sets (CIEFL, 1995:4, Block-1, Unit-1).

1. The ability to *use* the language (English or any other). By virtue of this ability, we produce acceptances, distinguish between acceptable and unacceptable sentences or formations.
2. The ability to *talk* about the language, to use meta language about language. By virtue of this we can *introspect* about sentences (produced by us or by others), explain the rules or processes involved.

These two abilities are derived from two kinds of knowledge of grammar. The first kind of knowledge (as mentioned above) may be termed as “implicit” knowledge which enables the learner to use the language appropriately and also to distinguish between well-formed and ill-formed sentences. The second kind of knowledge (as mentioned above) may be termed as ‘explicit’ knowledge that enables us to use the language appropriately to state ‘the rules of sentence formation’ and also to say how these rules have been observed or not observed.

The above discussion can be said to carry two meanings of the word ‘Grammar’ - Grammar ‘A’ and Grammar ‘B’ (CIEFL, 1995: 5) *Modern English Grammar and Usage*, Block 1, Unit 1:

Grammar ‘A’ means an implicit or internalized knowledge of the rules of a language and it is unconsciously in operation whenever we use the language. Grammar ‘B’ means an explicit knowledge of the rules of the language in question and it enables us to speak in a formal, technical, way about that language. All native speakers of a language possess Grammar A (since they can use the language in an acceptable way and can tell when it is not used in an unacceptable way). Not all native speakers of a language may have Grammar B; they may not be able to formally explain the rules and processes involved in sentence-making. On the other hand, foreign learners of a language may master Grammar B (which is after all only a codification of Grammar A) very well indeed in the sense that they are able to formally state the rules of a language and say how they are observed or broken in a particular cases.

## 4.2 PEDAGOGIC GRAMMAR

The concept of pedagogic grammar can be understood well with all clarity in the following lines (Dirven 1986:1)

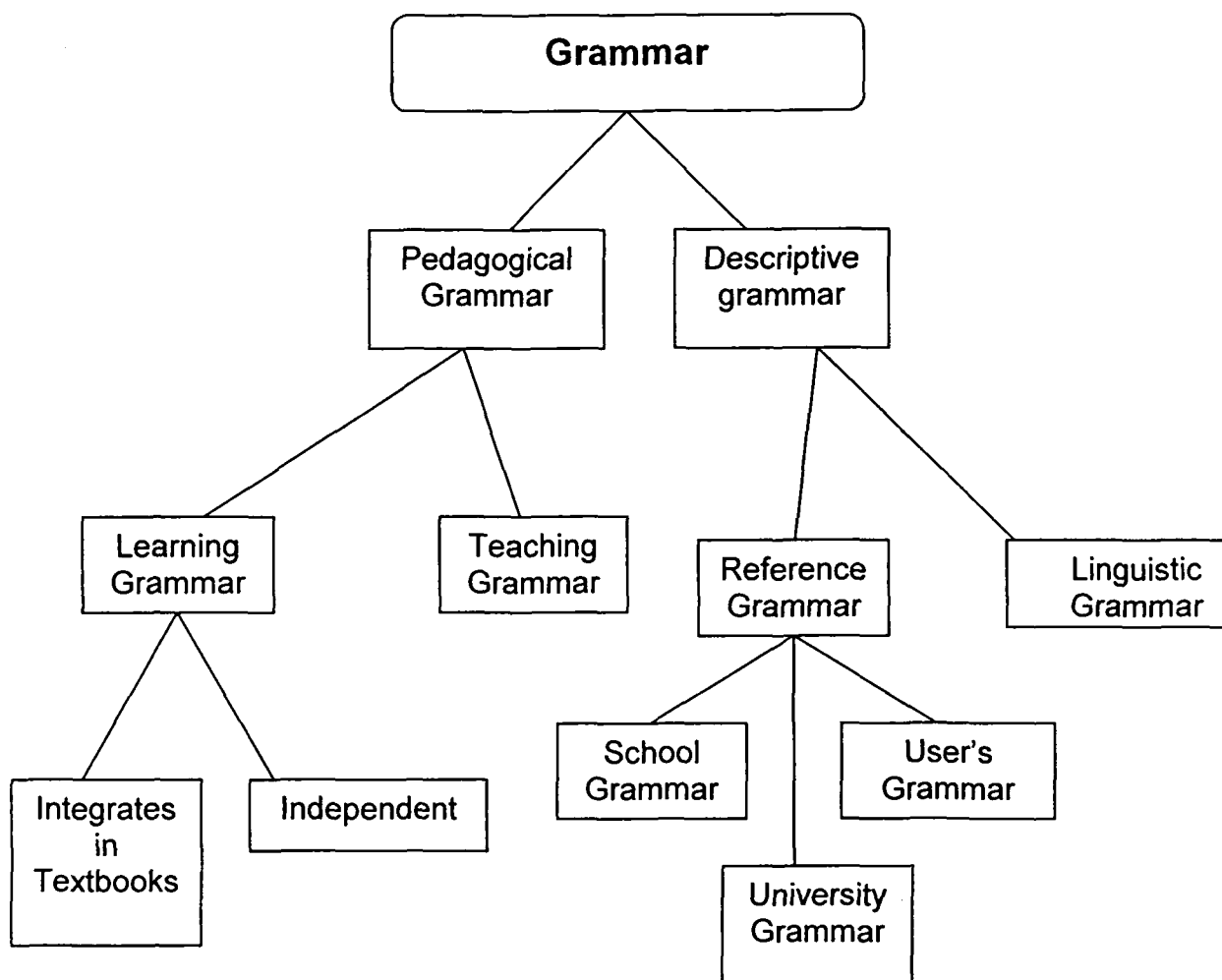
As a working definition we can understand pedagogical grammar (PG) as a cover term for any learner-or teacher – oriented description or presentation of foreign language rule complexes with the aim of promoting and guiding learning processes in the acquisition of that language. This definition (see also Dirven, 1985, 1986) leaves room for various types of pedagogical grammar, e.g., a learning grammar (in German Learn grammatik; see Macht, 1984), a teaching grammar, a reference grammar (e.g. a school grammar), a university grammar and even some linguistic grammars. The Alexander, (1988:VII) characterizes his school grammar as follows: In other words, the book aims to be a true pedagogical grammar for everyone concerned with English as a foreign language '. By incorporating the notion of a learning grammar, the term PG may also refer to the grammar within a given text-book or syllabus. Most importantly, it leaves room for grammar as an activity (presentation), as a learning process and as part of a competence to be acquired. Pedagogical grammar may be descriptive, though it need not be. In this respect, it is fundamentally opposed to a (Purely) descriptive grammar, which may be either a linguistics grammar or another type of reference grammar, which – for lack of a better term – will be called a user's grammar. In English, the term 'pedagogical grammar' usually covers both learning and teaching grammars. The Edinburgh group of applied linguists – such as Allen (1974), Widdowson (1975) and especially Corder (1974:172) – see these as being interaction with each other; the term 'pedagogical grammar', which Corder would prefer to replace by the more adequate term 'the pedagogy of grammar', does not just apply to the explicit treatment of 'grammar', but to the whole of the syllabus, which must stimulate and guide the learner's setting up of hypotheses about the target language.

(Dirven 1986:1)

The above definition of pedagogic grammar makes it very clear that it refers to any type of grammar which is intended for the teaching and learning purposes.

Pedagogic grammar is often described as an entity that refers to descriptive/theoretical grammar with reference to which we can use the

following diagram to understand the meaning of pedagogic grammar as opposed to descriptive grammar



**Fig. 16. R.Dirven (1986: 01) Types of Grammar**

Here we see how pedagogic grammar stands apart from descriptive grammar which join hence only in the form of reference grammar. This distinction can be best understood in the categorization of grammar on the basis of its purpose into the following three kinds: Linguists' grammar, Learners' grammar and Teachers' grammar. An extract from CIEFL (1995:7-13) *Modern English Grammar and Usage*, Block 1, Unit-1 is used here to elaborate upon these significant three types of grammar:

## **Linguists' Grammar**

Linguists are interested in studying language as a system of signs (which means the study of the relationships among the signs), how language is acquired, how it is comprehended, how it is produced and so on. One school of linguistics today is interested in setting up a universal grammar which can be used to study all languages. Such a grammar attempts to view all linguistic activity in terms of certain transformational processes and operations. The goal of such a grammar (as well as of the linguistic theory behind it) may be to understand the nature of the human mind through a study of human languages). The linguist's grammar therefore is often based on philosophical speculation about the nature of language and the human mind and it is characterized by a rigorously developed set of technical terms and distinctions. There are of course different schools of linguistics but the linguist's grammar in each case is built on a particular hypothesis/theory of language. Moreover, the linguist's grammar is not (generally speaking) concerned with language teaching in any formal sense though it is interested in language acquisition.

## **Learners' grammar**

A Learner's grammar, as the name suggests, is meant to Help the learner to learn the language in question (or rather to learn to use the, language). We said that a linguist's grammar is invariably based on a linguistic theory (about the nature of language or language acquisition). The linguist's grammar may itself contain an account of the theory in question. A learner's grammar is also the result or end-product of certain theoretical discussions about the nature of language learning (especially learning in formal settings), but these theories are not described or even mentioned in the grammar itself. The theoretical questions that are asked before a learner's grammar is written are such as the following:

- (a) Should there be any formal teaching of grammar at all in a language teaching/learning programme? Does the formal learning of grammar help in language use?
- (b) If the answer to the previous questions is "yes", how much grammar should be taught and of what kind?
- (c) How should the grammar be presented? So, you see, a learner's grammar should keep in mind a wide range of considerations such as the particular educational theories that are current at the time, the extent of information to be provided, the particular educational environment, the age and level of the learners and so on. For example, at a time when language learning was viewed as a process of imitation and habit-formation, learner's grammars consisted of basic information followed by a lot of repetitive, often mechanical drills. (See a book like Stannard Allen, *Living English Structure*.) At present, however, when language learning is viewed more as a creative activity than as a mechanical activity, the focus is on indirectly presenting and teaching grammar items through tasks in language use. In other words, a learner's grammar today presents a minimum of formal information (sometimes in the form of do's and don't's), but it mainly attempts to induce and reinforce the mastery of grammatical skills (such as the proper use of tenses or the formation of interrogatives) through a series of meaningful, contextualized tasks.

### **Teachers' grammar**

A teacher's grammar should obviously contain more information than a learner's grammar. After all it is a truism that the level of the teacher's knowledge should always be higher than that of the learner. Only then will s/he be able to solve the learner's problems as and when s/he encounters them. However, the



teacher is not (and need not be) interested in the theoretical problems that concern the linguist. But, even though the linguist may disclaim any interest in pedagogic issues, some of the linguist's insights may prove valuable when they are applied to language teaching. The teacher's grammar makes these insights available to the teacher so that the teacher can filter them still further and pass them on, if and when necessary, to the students. A teacher's grammar may thus be said to occupy a middle ground between a linguist's grammar and a learner's grammar with regard to

- (a) the quantum and complexity of information presented and
- (b) the kind and number of technical terms employed. So far as the mode of presentation is concerned, a teacher's grammar need not be situationalized or contextualized as a learner's grammar has to be.

### **Exemplification of Learners, Teacher's and Linguistics Grammar**

Let us now illustrate this classification of grammars (into linguist's, teacher's and learner's grammars) with a set of three examples. All the extracts given below deal with the grammatical topic known as subject-verb concord: CIEFL (1995:7-13) *Modern English Grammar and Usage*, Block 1, Unit 1.

#### **(a) Linguists' grammar**

You normally ensure that the form of the verbal agrees with the number of the surface subject. For example, when the surface subject is third person singular, the present tense form of the verb ends in "s". In some cases, the verb is a kind of carbon copy showing a plural form when the surface subject is plural, and a singular form when it is singular. In other cases, when the verb is in the past tense for example, the form of the verb is the same regardless of whether its surface subject is singular or plural. Thus we have

the ballerina laughed  
 and the ballerinas laughed  
 but not the ballerina laugheds.

Since the "s" is only added to +present tense verbs whose surface subjects are not merely <+singular>, but also in the third person <+III>, the person feature must be considered in transformations affecting agreement.

How may this kind of information be presented in terms of the kind of feature analysis used here? What processes are involved in agreement?

At least two steps are involved in agreement. The first affects the auxiliary segment. Remember that the copula transformation introduces a copula segment before adjectives such as "hungry" in the deep structure for the crocodiles are hungry.

The auxiliary incorporation transformation then incorporates the copula segment into the auxiliary. As yet, however, there is no indication about which form of the copula is to be used in the structure, since both person and number features are missing from the auxiliary.

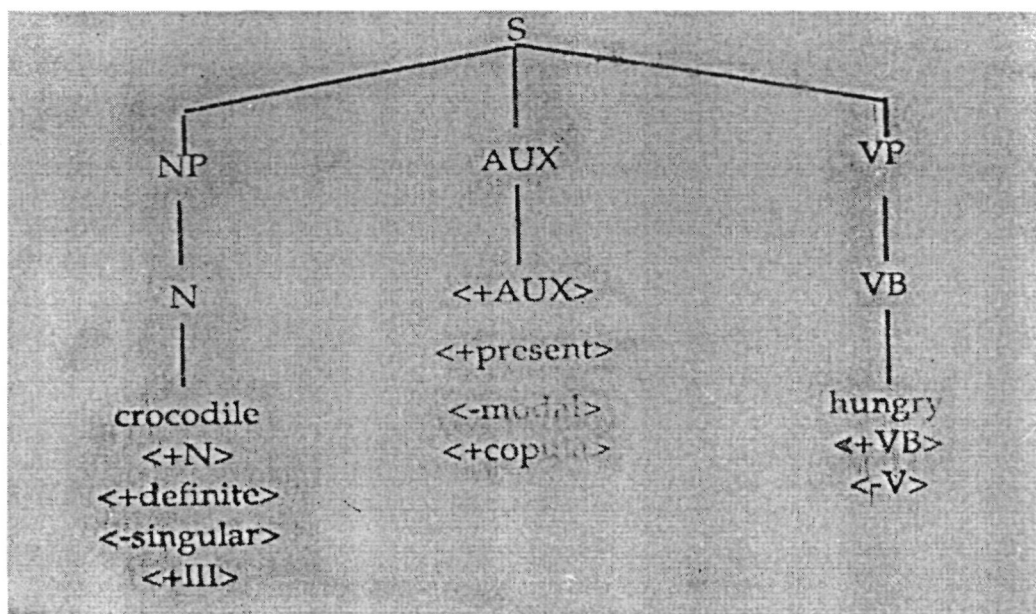


Fig. 17. Tree Diagram

The third person plural form of the copula is needed if the auxiliary is to agree with its surface subject. The auxiliary must have, then, the features <+III> and <-singular>, the last two features marked on the subject. So the first transformation required for agreement, the auxiliary agreement transformation, as it may be called, copies the number and person features of the subject onto the auxiliary segment.

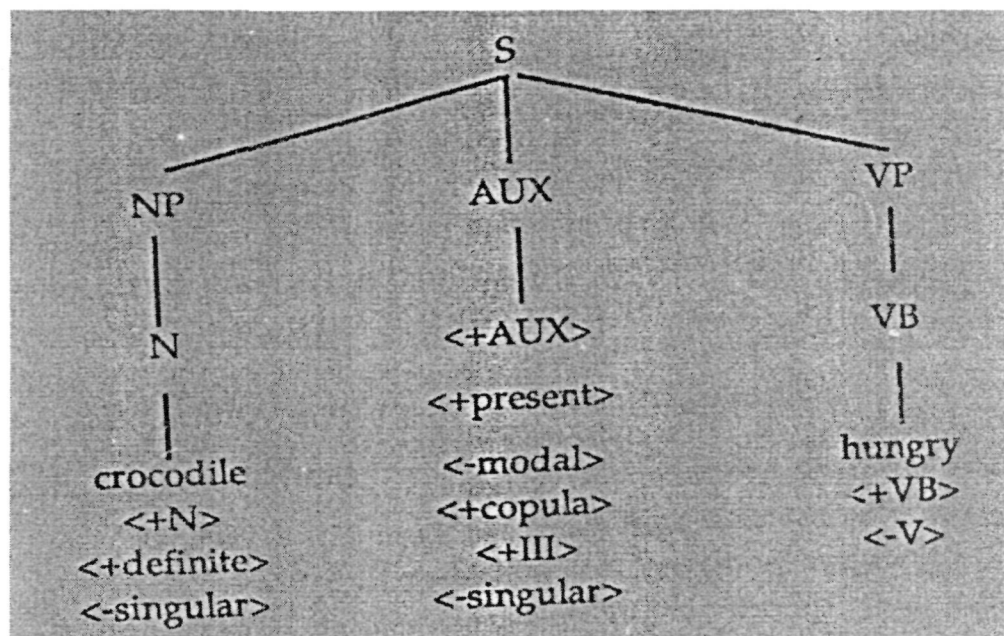


Fig. 18. Tree Diagram

The word in the lexicon *with* features matching that of the auxiliary segment is "are".

## (b) Teachers' grammar

Subject-verb concord

### Concord

Concord can be broadly defined as the relationship between two grammatical elements such that if one of them contains a particular feature (eg plurality) then the other also has to have that feature. The most important type of concord in

English is concord of number between subject and verb. The normally observed rule is very simple:

A singular subject requires a singular verb

A plural subject requires a plural verb

On number in the verb phrase and noun phrase see 3.10 and 4.48 ff; the English verb inflections (except for the verb BE) only make a distinction of number in the 3rd person present. Hence sentences (1) and (2) are grammatical, while (3) and (4) are not:

- |                          |                          |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| (1) The window is open   | (3) The window are open  |
| (sing+sing)              | (sing+plur)              |
| (2) The windows are open | (4) *The windows is open |
| (plur+plur)              | (plur+sing)              |

A clause in the position of subject counts as singular for purposes of concord: *How you got there doesn't concern me; To treat them as hostages is criminal.* The same is true of prepositional phrases, etc acting as subject: *After the meeting is the time to speak,* etc. Nominal relative clauses on the other hand, since they are equivalent to noun phrases (11.14), may have plural as well as singular concord: *What were once human dwellings are now nothing but piles of rubble.*

#### Note

- [a] In fact, it is possible to generalize the rule of concord to "A subject which is not definitely marked for plural requires a singular verb"; that *is*, to treat singular as the "unmarked" form, to be used in neutral circumstances, where no positive indication of plurality is present. This would explain, in addition to clausal and adverbial subjects, the tendency in informal speech for *is/was* to follow the pseudo-subject *There* in existential sentences such as

There's hundreds of people on the waiting list (14.26)

- [b] Apparent exceptions to the concord rule arise with singular nouns ending with the -s of the plural inflection (*measles, billiards, mathematics, etc.* 4.52), or conversely plural nouns lacking the inflection (*cattle, people, clergy, etc.* 4.57):
- [c] Plural words and phrases (including coordinate phrases, sec 7.26) count as singular if they are used as names, titles, quotations, etc (sec further 9.164): *Crime and Punishment* is perhaps the best-constructed of Dostoyevsky's novels; but *The Brothers Karamazov* is undoubtedly his masterpiece.
- [d] The titles of some works which are collections of stories, etc, however, hover between singular and plural: *The Canterbury Tales* exist/exists in many manuscripts.) Such noun phrases can be regarded as appositional structures with a deleted singular head: The book "Crime and Punishment", The expression 'Senior Citizens', etc.

**(c) Learners' grammar**

Singular And plural Verbs

DIALOGUE

**Buying a Scooter**

Salesman: Good morning, sir!

Mr Kumar: Good morning. I want a second-hand scooter, please.  
Are these second-hand scooters?

Salesman: No, sir, they're new. The second-hand ones are over there. This way, please. Here's a pretty blue-and-white scooter. It's had only one owner and the engine is very good.

Mr Kumar: It has one new tyre and one old tyre. Strange, isn't it?

Salesman: A nail went into the front tyre, sir. So the owner put in a new one. And the seats are new.

Mr Kumar: How much is it?

Salesman: Rs.2,000. But I could give it to you for a hundred rupees less.

Mr Kumar: Make it two hundred less and it's a deal.

Salesman: All right, sir. It's yours. Shall I change the other tyre too?

## USAGE

Students need practice in using singular and plural verbs correctly, especially auxiliaries.

X The children was poorly dressed.

/ The children were poorly dressed.

X The lions in the zoo *is* looking rather thin.

/ The lions in the zoo are looking rather thin.

X The train don't stop at Arkonam and Katpadi.

/ The train doesn't stop at Arkonam and Katpadi.

X The men in that field has stopped work early.

/ The men in that field have stopped work early.

1. Choose the correct form of the verb in the following sentences:

- a. He....like the country, (don't, doesn't)
- b. He says that there ... any restaurants in the country, (aren't, isn't)
- c. There ... any department stores or cinemas (aren't, isn't)
- d. One can... very good plays in town: one can ... wonderful meals  
in town; and one can.... beautiful clothes in town, (see, sees;  
eat.  
eats; buy, buys)
- e. In the country all that a man can ... is to sit near a river and  
... fresh air. (do, does; breathe, breathes)

- f. In the country there... no music sabhas, museums or even good book-shops, (are, is)
2. Re-write these sentences so that they refer to all popular film stars and not just to one:
- a. A popular film star is busy throughout the year,
  - b. She is usually in eight or nine films at the same time.
  - c. In between films, she has to take part in any number of charity shows.
  - d. She has to be photographed every other day for promoting a new brand of soap or toothpaste.
  - e. She goes once a day to a beauty parlour, and twice a week to the hair-dresser's.
  - f. She finds it impossible to be present at every birthday party or wedding she is invited to.
  - g. It is no surprise then that she does not find time to pay her income tax!

Examine the three extracts given above. What characteristics of the respective types of grammar (linguist's, teacher's and learner's) do they display please do not worry if you do not understand some of the terms or statements especially in (a) and (b).)

### Discussion

- (a) This extract from Jacobs and Rosenbaum's *English Transformational Grammar* is based (like the rest of the grammar) on the theoretical distinction between surface structures and deep structures. It is also on the notion that "our knowledge of the idiosyncratic properties words may be represented as a kind of internalized dictionary, .... called a

lexicon". Notice also the other technical terms used such as the copula, auxiliary agreement transformation. The extract describes agreement as the result of certain operations.

- (b) The extract is from Randolph Quirk, et al. *A Grammar of Contemporary English*, pages 359-60. There is quite some formal information presented here (a teacher's grammar) but there isn't, obviously, any linguistic theory underlying the information. The notion of concord is explained in terms of analysis rather than operations. There is considerable additional information provided in the extract which would help the teacher clarify any doubts which the students might have about concord. The mode of presentation however is more that of the linguist's grammar than that of the learner's grammar.
- (c) This is an extract from M.P.Bhaskaran and Horsburgh, *Strengthen Your English* (pages 5-6), a learner's grammar. The quantum of formal grammatical explanation/ information is practically nil. The extract is based on the view that what the students need are a few illustrations of concord observed with parallel sentences showing the violation of concord. Note how the terms "concord" and "subject" have been avoided. Only "verb", "auxiliary", "singular" and "plural" (terms which are already likely to be known to the students) have been used. The one-sentence statement and the examples have a remedial purpose, teaching students how to avoid mistakes of this kind.

From the above distinction of linguists', learners' and teachers' grammars, we can say that while linguists' grammar refers to the descriptive/ theoretical grammar, the learners' grammar refers to the pedagogic grammar; and teachers' grammar is a bridge between the two.

Even Pit Corder (1993:323-330) identifies three types of grammar on the basis of its audience/consumers. They are grammar for linguists, grammar for foreign teachers and grammar for language learners. The intention of the linguists involved in grammar activities is best expressed in



the following lines from the Preface to Lee's *The Grammar of English Nomalizations* (1963) (as quoted in Corder 1993:324).

There are many different reasons for engaging in technical linguistic research on natural language, but we view the following motivations as especially compelling. Only by studying the grammatical details of particular languages may we gain a deeper insight into the mechanisms underlying that most characteristically human type of behaviour, man's ability to communicate by means of language.

Another example of Linguists intention is quoted from Nida's. *A Synopsis of English Syntax* (1960) cited in Corder (1993:324).

The purpose of this analysis of English syntax is to demonstrate the application of descriptive techniques to the problems of syntax in the writer's own speech.

The purpose of the teacher's grammar is best expressed in Owen Thomas (1965) addressed to the prospective teachers (cited in Corder 1993:326)

It is my hope that teachers will learn something valuable about the nature of English from this text, and that this knowledge will improve their teaching and help their students. I am personally and professionally interested in the problems of teaching English, and only peripherally interested in the problems of theoretical linguistics. To achieve my primary aim in the best way I know how. I must risk offending those whose professional interest in theory. I admire and respect them, but there is little I can do to enlighten them.

Whitehall (1951) as quoted in Corder (1993:326) expresses the intentions of the learner's/ pedagogic grammar in the following words:

...intended primarily for teachers and students of English Composition, it may serve other readers particularly those interested in literary exegesis - as a - succinct, in elementary linguistic introduction to English Syntax. I should hasten to add, however, that this book was not written with my fellow linguists in mind that certain distributional methods fruitful in technical linguistics are not used here, and that pedagogical simplicity rather than linguistic consistency determine the inductive approach to the subject matter.

On the basis of the above discussion thus we can conclude that pedagogic grammar:

- (1) Covers the learning grammar. (Mindt 1981:32)
- (2) Pedagogic grammar refers to the prephatory stage where grammar is interactive and enables the learners to produce and understand utterances. (Borner and Vogel 1976:10). They also distinguish between the Pedagogic grammar and learners grammar.
- (3) Pedagogic grammar refers to as Pedagogical or Pedagogized description of the language or the knowledge of this language built and channeled on the bases of Pedagogic descriptions. (Bess and Porquier 1988: 185)
- (4) Characterizes a mixture of descriptive as prescriptive statements ... Greenbaum (1987).
- (5) Necessitates and almost entirely new description, matching the insights but not the actual description of the DG(Descriptive Grammar) with his pedagogical insights. From this unified approach a new description will arrive, which in the optimal case bares hardly any resemblance to a DG, though both may cover the same facts and rule system. (Dirven, 1990:51)

The above definition of pedagogic grammar can be understood better if they are read as opposed to theoretical grammar, which refers to generative grammar that linguists use to gain insights into human language. Chomsky's concept of Finite State Grammar, Phrase Structure Grammar, and Transformational Grammar, Tagmemic Grammar developed by Pike or even Functional Systemic Grammar and Discourse Analysis are some examples of theoretical grammar.

#### **4.3 DEBATES IN PEDAGOGIC GRAMMAR**

Teaching grammar is as old as its origin. With the Greeks there happened to be two sets of grammarians. One who were intellectually curious

to understand their language better, and the other who wanted to make their living by teaching. (Vavra, 2004:4).

This tradition of two sets of grammarians continued till date with the only change that over a period of time even the teachers/ grammarians contributed enthusiastically on such issues as the scope, purpose, types, materials and methodology of grammar teaching.

When the Latin adopted Greek as a model and started to teach Latin grammar, the Romans had to identify the aspects of grammar that needed to be taught as a part of curriculum. This issue kept expending with the consideration of Latin grammar as the model for teaching of the vernacular languages in the whole of Europe including English.

The first problem that came before the pedagogic grammarians was the difference between the languages. For instance, English is non-inflected language, while the Greeco-Roman, models are inflected languages and hence did not fitted. A simple example of the word, 'Like' can be taken from (Vavra, 2004:4).

The word 'like' in English can be used as an Adjective, Conjunction, Noun or even Verb depending on the context of use in a sentence. In inflected languages, like Greek and Latin a single word such as 'like' can not normally have such a wide variety of functions suffixes would differentiate the noun, verb, adjective, and preposition.

In addition to such an inappropriateness of the model, the second problem that arose when the first English grammarians adopted Ancient modals were the respect for Latin that led to prescriptivism. A sense of respect and holiness was attached to the grammar rules that were inherited from Latin – a dominant language of the Church for centuries.

Besides these English was a young language, emerging out of various transitions and confusions of the earlier stage. To overcome such a situation languages started to be compared and contrasted for the purpose of teaching. Such concepts as comparative and historical linguistics, contrastive analysis at the psychological theory of behaviourism came to the rescue until the time

when pure linguistics is to be differentiated from applied linguistics that included English Language Teaching (E.L.T.) besides other related interdisciplinary areas of the studies. Until the 18<sup>th</sup> century grammar of a language was taught on the basis of traditional assumptions regarding language with Latin grammar as a model.

The emergence of linguistics and the research advancements in sociology, and psychology introduced a remarkable change in the Pedagogic Grammar. The significance of 'what' and 'how' of grammar were questioned.

Some of the major controversies that generated debate with regard to pedagogic grammar are as follows:

#### **4.3.1 Traditional Vs Modern Grammar**

Dinneen (1967:166) compares the traditional grammar and Modern linguistics in the following words:

By Traditional grammar is meant the basically Aristotelian orientation toward the nature of language as exemplified in the work of the ancient Greeks and Romans, the speculative work of the medieval, and the prescriptive approach of eighteenth century grammarians. By "linguistics" is meant the empirical, structural approach to language as represented principally by American Linguists during the period of the early 1940s, to mid-1950s since this is the work best known to those of the traditional approach.

(Dinneen, 1967:166)

Traditional grammar considered Latin grammar as a model where the prescriptive rules are to be generally memorized without any proper rationale and justification. The linguists of the 19<sup>th</sup> and early 20<sup>th</sup> century such as De Saussure, Sapir, Bloomfield, et. al., who were basically structuralists attacked the very basis of a traditional grammar. Some of its features are as follows:

- (1) Traditional grammar is very popular, extensive, influential and easiest method for the comparative study of different languages.
- (2) It is explicit in approach.

- (3) It is not premised on any scientific or theoretical assumptions, but it is humanistic.
- (4) It is purely based on conventional thoughts pertaining to language and grammar.
- (5) It is prescriptive and normative.
- (6) It is diachronic.
- (7) It is based on the written data, hence it gives definite thoughts and references.
- (8) It encourages bilingualism in the learning process and refers teaching formal language styles.
- (9) It is form and accuracy based.

Modern grammar on the other hand emerged as a discipline on the basis of sound, scientific theorizations. It looked at language in the new perspective with a preference to spoken form of language over the written mode and tried to describe language data in order to understand it.

They observed that the traditional grammar is full of erroneous and unscientific assumptions. Hence the modern grammarians redefined and recategorized the various aspects of traditional grammar. A comparative presentation of Traditional and Modern Grammar is presented in the following table:

**Table-1: Comparative study between traditional and modern Grammar:**

<b>Traditional Grammar</b>	<b>Modern Grammar</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It is taught deductively, i.e. it is rule-governed</li> <li>• It is based on prescriptivism, i.e. it is Teacher Centered.</li> <li>• It is Form – Based</li> <li>• Its main attention is on ‘accuracy’ and ‘correctness’.</li> <li>• It is difficult to distinguish spoken and written form of language.</li> <li>• It is normative and prescriptive</li> <li>• It is based on logic and philosophy</li> <li>• Aims at accuracy.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It is taught inductively i.e. exposure to language for discovering rules</li> <li>• It is descriptive and Learner Centered.</li> <li>• It focuses on function but doesn’t reject form totally.</li> <li>• It considers ‘Acceptability’, ‘intelligibility’ and appropriateness</li> <li>• It considers spoken data as its basis.</li> <li>• It is explicit and descriptive.</li> <li>• It is based on linguistic science.</li> <li>• Focuses on fluency.</li> </ul>

### 4.3.2 Prescriptive vs. Descriptive

As the name suggests 'prescriptive grammar' refers to the prescription of the sets of rule for the correct use of the language. It is this attitude that most people still believe that grammar teaches the 'dos' and 'don'ts' of the language. Many such prescriptions still hammer our minds when we use a language. Some of these are as follows:

- (i) Make sure that the verbs agree with their subjects.
- (ii) Never use 'me' as a subject of a sentence.
- (iii) Do not split an infinitive.
- (iv) A sentence must not end with a preposition.

Such prescriptive rules refer to the 'linguistic etiquette' failing which one is branded as grammatically incorrect and poorly educated. These and many other rules of the prescriptive grammar codify the distinction between the standard and non-standard variety of language and such rules often influence people choosing between 'good' and 'bad' grammatical forms. The term of 'prescriptive grammar' is based on the notion that the grammatical knowledge is complete and definitive and that there exists an absolute standard of correctness. It is propagated that following the prescriptive rules help in immediate comprehension and international intelligibility. Any failure to conform to the prescriptive rules is suggestive of bad taste, poor education and introduction of impurity to the language. Therefore, these norms are enshrined in the dictionaries, and books of the school grammar.

A couple of definitions of prescriptive grammar are listed below for further understanding of the term:

- (a) Prescriptive grammar provides "a manual that focuses on instructions where usage is divided and lays on rules governing the socially correct use of language" (David Crystal, 1997 :88)
- (b) "Prescriptive grammar lays down rules for the use of a language; "such a grammar would call all those sentences 'correct' which observes

these rules and all those sentences 'incorrect' which break these rules". (CIEFL Unit -1: 6)

- (c) "A prescriptive grammar presents authoritative norms for a particular language and intends to deprecate non-standard constructions. Traditional grammars are typically prescriptive. Prescriptive grammars are usually based on the prestige dialects of a speech community, and often specially condemned certain constructions which are common only among lower socio-economic groups, such as the use of "ain't" and double negatives in English. Though prescriptive grammars remain common in pedagogy and foreign language teaching, they have fallen out of favour in modern academic linguistics, as they describe only a subset of actual language usage".

([http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/grammar#Development\\_of\\_grammars](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/grammar#Development_of_grammars))

Prescriptive grammar has been used, 'and still being used in India at least' for centuries by the students and teachers.

Descriptive grammar, on the other hand, states the facts of the language as they exist and record sentences as they are spoken (or written) systematically by a large number of native speakers. CIEFL. (1995:6) Modern English Grammar and Usage. Block 1, Unit 1.

Like prescriptive grammar, the descriptive grammar too contains 'rules', but these rules (may also be called" conventions are those that actually underlie the usage of native speakers).

(CIEFL, 1995:6)

When the rules of descriptive grammars are violated, these violations are recorded objectively as a changing phenomenon of the current usage. This means that while prescriptive grammar considers language as a static entity, descriptive grammar uses a certain language as a dynamic phenomenon.

The distinction between descriptive and prescriptive grammars can be made clearer if a distinction is made between natural laws and Laws of the

Government. CIEFL. (1995:6) Modern English Grammar and Usage. Block 1, Unit 1.

Laws like the Law of gravitation or the law of Planetary motion actually describe the phenomenon found in nature, while the laws of a society, or of a government prescribed what we should do and penalizes if you do not observe them. The "rules" of the descriptive grammar, therefore, the natural laws stated by scientists, based on actual usage, while rules of a prescriptive grammar are liked the laws of the government which tell us how we ought to use the language.

(CIEFL, 1995:6)

David Crystal (1997: 88) observes:

An approach that describes the grammatical constructions that are used in a language, without making any evaluative judgments about their standing in society. These grammars are commonplace in linguistics, where it is standard practice to investigate a 'corpus' of spoken or written material, and to describe in detail the patterns it contains.

(David, Crystal. 1997: 88)

A descriptive grammar attempts to describe actual usage, avoiding prescriptive judgements. Descriptive grammars are bound to a particular speech community, and attempt to provide rules for any utterance considered grammatically correct within that community. For example, in many dialects of English, the use of double negatives is very common, though ungrammatical from the point of view of a prescriptive English grammar. A descriptive grammar of a speech community where "I didn't do nothing" is acceptable will treat sentence as grammatical, and provide rules that account for it. A descriptive grammar of formal English would rather provide rules for "I didn't do anything" ([http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/grammar#development\\_of\\_grammars](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/grammar#development_of_grammars))

(Odlin, 1994: 2-3) refers about the kinds of grammar:

From pedagogy point of view the prescriptive grammar, though discouraged by the descriptivists, is encouraged for the fact that "prescription makes possible the standardization of languages, which makes communication easier between highly different dialect regions, as some linguists have noted (e.g., Hughes and Trudgill 1987). Having a target language codified (even if imperfectly) simplifies both the teaching and learning of second languages. If there were no limit to the variation permissible, the speech (or writing), of learners would inevitably diverge much more from the target language.



Constraining the divergence through prescription can help to make ways of speaking or writing mutually intelligible when learners modify their language toward a single standard, or at least toward a narrower range of standards (e.g., American, British). While it is true that standard varieties are often associated with the richer and more powerful members of a society, education can – and should – make the standard accessible to all. Pretending that language teaching does not entail prescription will hardly serve learners. One linguist well aware of the limitations of prescriptivism writes:

If you want to create a truly elitist society, one in which a very few (a priesthood, if you will) control everything, the best way to do so is to deny substantive education to the masses. Inevitably, however much we try to keep it from happening, there will be those intelligent enough to learn on their own, ambitious enough to do so, and ruthless enough to use what they know for their own advancement at the expense of the hapless, undereducated majority. Substantive education must include the development of knowledge about language and skill in using it, and there seems no way to do justice to these twin aims without prescriptivism of a sort.

(Odlin, 1994: 2-3)

The above quoted lines represent the present day thought of major chunk of teachers and also suggests that it will be improper to sacrifice one on the cost of the other. Hence there is a need for bridging the two types of grammar for the effective teaching of a foreign/second language.

#### **4.3.3 Correctibility Vs Acceptability**

In the earlier section we saw that while prescriptive grammar thinks in term of correctibility, the descriptive grammar, talks of acceptability. The emergence of modern linguistics assumes that language is dynamic and that it changes in time and space. A plethora of examples can be cited to show what was considered to be incorrect yesterday, is being used enthusiastically in the present time. 'correct' and 'incorrect' are relative terms. What is correct in India may be incorrect in England.

Besides this 'correct' and 'incorrect' suggests absolute norms, while language in use is actually determined by a whole on a lot of relative criteria. (CIEFL. (1995:16) Modern English Grammar and Usage, Block 1 Unit, 2.

Acceptable and unacceptable on the other hand are also norms which are relative, fluid and variable. While the 'correct – incorrect' dichotomy points a division into black

and white, the “acceptable – unacceptable” distinction rightly suggests the possibility of many grey areas.

(CIEFL, 1995:16)

The concept of acceptability and unacceptability becomes more valid when we think of language as a constituent of both linguistic and paralinguistic features, in addition to the aspects of socio-cultural and aesthetic appropriateness and expressions.

Let us look at the following sentence which is grammatically correct but it is unacceptable because of socio-cultural inappropriateness:

"Hello! old man, how are you ?"

It is impolite to call an old man, old.

#### **4.3.4 Concepts and Categories**

Since the modern linguistics looked at language in a new perspective of descriptive grammar, it challenged the traditional grammar by discarding the traditional concepts and views of grammar. As a consequence the modern grammarians redefined, recategorized and labelled a fresh existing traditional grammatical concepts and categories. The eight 'parts of speech' of the traditional grammar were replaced by five 'word classes'. A distinction was established between time and tense, formal and functional labeling of grammar items were made; use and usage were distinguished. And all these fresh categories and concepts of modern grammar were incorporated into books on pedagogic grammar. Certainly all these were possible only after a heated debate on these issues at pedagogic level. Some of these concepts and categories are listed below:

##### **4.3.4.1 Parts of Speech or Word Classes**

The modern grammarians scrutinized the definitions and exemplification of all the parts of speech as per the traditional grammar and they found faults pertaining to them. They, for instance, challenged the traditional definition of Noun as “The name of a person, place, or thing”. It was observed that ‘red’, ‘blue’, and ‘black’, are, for instance, the names of colours, but they are not put under the category of noun by the traditional

grammarians, rather they are categorized as adjectives. Hence the modern grammarians found lacunae in the definition of noun.

Therefore, they redefined and recategorized the parts of speech under the five heads of word classes. These are as follows:

- (i) Nominals
- (ii) Verbals
- (iii) Atributives
- (iv) Prepositions
- (v) Conjunctions.

In order to explain these, the following extract has been taken from (CIEFL, 1995:41-43) Modern English Grammar and Usage, Block 1, Unit 3.

**(i) Nominals**

It contain nouns and pronouns. (Unit-3, CIEFL: 41) pronouns refer to specific entities – both abstract and concrete – without giving them a name. The name may be a generic one (common noun e.g.. man) or a specific one (proper noun e.g.. Parthasarathy). Nominals can be categories by the case, person, gender and number. Mostly nouns and pronouns like, he, she, it and they are called the third person categories.

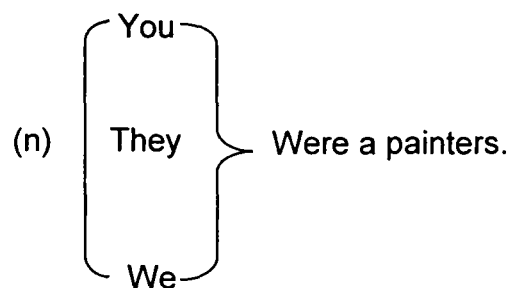
- (a) It is ----
- (b) She is ----
- (c) He is ----
- (d) Rani is ----
- (e) Vipul is ----

**(ii) Verbals:**

It is considered as a part of category, which have, verbs, modals and auxiliaries. Modals such as, may/might, can/could, shall/should, will/would don't get affected by nominals categories

like person, number and with the gender concord, while Auxiliaries can get affected by the number and person concord. For instances:

- (f) He/She/I/You can do it.
- (g) She/He/It/does it best.
- (h) I/You/They/Do it properly.
- (i) He is a painter.
- (j) I am a painter.
- (k) You are a painter.
- (l) They are a painter.
- (m) [She/He/and I] was a painter.



The modals which are used before verb phrase, the modals don't consist non-finite forms.

### (iii) **Attributives:**

It is the term which advances another term. It modifies Adjectives and Adverbs. Adjectives develop nouns – that is why adjectives are also known as **adnominals**. Verbs are being modified by the **Adverbs**. For instance:

- (o) He is a **good** teacher. (Adjective)
- (p) He teaches **good**. (Adverb)

#### **(iv) Prepositions:**

The case relations are being expressed by the help of prepositions.

There are some kinds of prepositions like dative, agentive, benefactive and instances:

- (a) This was done **by** his master.(agentive)
- (b) He gave it **to** his servant .(dative)
- (c) He purchased it **for** his servant.(benefactive)
- (d) Mohan went (along) with his master.(comitative)

#### **(v) Conjunctions**

The components which connect the words, sentence or more than one sentence, phrases and clauses are stated conjunctions. Here there are two types of conjunctions, like subordinating and coordinating. Subordinating subordinates the one component to another and the something happens with coordinating. For example:

- (a) Ram and Shyam played well.
- (b) She got first prize because  
She did well in the competition.

In the first sentence 'and' is a coordinating conjunction and in second sentence 'because' is a subordinating conjunction.

#### **4.3.4.2 Form and Function**

The terms 'form' and 'function' refer to the categories of representation of the elements of grammar. A 'formal' category can be recognized terms of its forms. Let us look at the following sentences:

**Ravi wanted to borrow a book from Amir.**

In the above sentence **Ravi**, **Book** and **Amir** are formally nouns, but their function is not the same. Parts of speech like Noun, Verb, Adjective and Adverb are formal labels. A formal label refers to the internal structure of a unit. That is it has nothing to do with its relationship with the structure of a bigger unit. That means the units **Ravi**, **Book** and **Amir** will formally always remain Nouns.

Functional label on the other hand refer to the place/Role of a smaller unit in the structure of a higher unit. In the above sentence (bigger unit), therefore, while **Ravi** (formally a noun) functions as subject, '**Amir**' (formally a noun) functions as an object - complement, and '**Book**' (formally a noun) functions as an 'object'.

Functional labels are of two types: structural functional labels "A logical functional labels". When we talk of a function of unit within a sentence, we have structural-functional categories in mind. But when we talk of the function of a unit in its relation to the external world out of the sentence, we have logical-functional categories in mind. Let us look at the following sentences:

(i) The white cat swallowed the black rat.

(ii) The black rat was swallowed by the white cat.

In the above sentences when we say that 'the white cat' and the 'black rat' are 'noun phrases' we are talking of the formal categories. On the other hand when we say that the 'black rat' is 'object' in the first sentence and 'subject' in the second sentence, we are referring to the structural – function of the phrases. Such terms as subject, object, complement, and adjunct are all structural functional labels. But when we say that 'the black rat' is effected in both the sentences, we are referring to logical – functional labels.

From the above discussions we can infer that one can assign a formal label to a word even when it is in isolation, but we cannot give a functional label to a word or of phrase unless we see it in a clause or sentence. It is important to mention here that the function or role of a word or a phrase may vary depending on the sentence in which it has been used.

So far we discussed the concept of form and function at the level of words. A similar distinction can be made with reference to a sentence as a whole. In terms of formal category sentences can be classified into such types as declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamatory. These sentences can be labelled under functional categories as statements, questions, orders, requests, positions, offer, instructions, warning, prohibition, etc. Let us look at the following sentences and their formal and functional labels:

(1) Is it raining ?

Formal label – Interrogative

Functional label – Question/Query/seeking information

(2) Why don't you sit down ?

Formal label – Interrogative

Functional label – suggestion

(3) Could you please get me glass of water ?

Formal label – Interrogative

Functional label – Request

(4) Give your purse or I shoot you.

Formal label – Imperative

Functional label – Threat/Warning

(5) Keep off the grass.

Formal label - Imperative

Functional label – Order/Prohibition

Over the last couple of decade the functional aspects of grammar have been struggling to replace the dominance of the formal aspect of grammar. This again has been an issue for debate at pedagogic level. Those who favour the dominance of grammatical forms in a curricula often boast of its advantages. They say that an organization of grammatical structures from simple to complex helps in teaching grammar, while on the other hand there

are teachers in grammarians who like to discourage teaching grammatical structures in isolation and intend to train the learners in such a way that they become linguistically proficient to perform the linguistic functions in the society.

For the last more than half a century the debate has been going on whether a course on grammar should focus on 'form' or 'function'. Those, who favour form, claim that the grammar course can sequence the grammatical structures from simple to complex; secondly, such a sequence will help the teachers in presenting one item at a time. In addition to this such a course will help students score well in the examinations.

Kassabgy, et. al. (2004 : 115) state an opposition to the above claim:

The counter position is articulated in studies that endeavour to establish the positive effects of a focus on form (Day and Shapson 1991; Carroll and Swain 1993; Doughty 1991; Doughty and Varela 1998; Eckman, Bell, and Nelson 1998; Gass 1982; Harley 1989; Lightbown and Spads 1990; Pica 1983; Pienemann 1984; Schachter, Rounds, Wright, Smith, and Magoto 1995; Weslander and Stemphany 1983; White, Spada, Lighbown, and Ranta 1991; for excellent reviews, see Long 1988 and Long and Robinson 1998;) These studies demonstrate that form-focused instruction facilitates short-term gains on particular constructions but leave open the question of whether it influences ultimate attainment.

(Kassabgy et. al., 2004: 115)

Kassabgy et. al. (2004: 117) further argue:

Traditional grammar presents rules one paradigm at a time, divorced from meaningful context. The syllabus is determined by factors other than the immediate needs of each learner. More importantly, the timing of the presentation is not triggered by perceived problems arising from a communicative event. When an isolated grammar lesson is the objective, the instruction is referred to as focus on forms.

(Kassabgy et al., 2004: 117)

The above mentioned grammar course based on form has often been condemned by the opponents who believe that a grammar course should mainly consist of language functions. The main charge that is put against the



form based grammar course is that such a course donot expose the learners to the actual language use and that even though, the learners will leave the class knowing a great deal about the structure of English language, they may not be able to use the language to communicate effectively which is after all the main purpose of pedagogic grammar. Therefore, they urge that grammar courses should be organized according to the function or purpose that the target language searches. In doing so the material procedures and even the teachers have to take care of the learner needs and the curricular needs. By doing so the function-based grammar course will be able to train the learners and effectively communicating in the society. Further they talked about form focus instruction which is as:

Kassabgy et. al. (2004: 117) further explain:

The initial arguments against a major role for form focused instruction were put forth by Krashen in several publications (see esp. 1980, 1985). Krashen argued that the role of the classroom is primarily to provide comprehensible input and is useful only at the beginning stages of L2 acquisition, where students find the input generated outside the classroom too difficult to comprehend. According to Krashen, explicit knowledge of the language gotten through conscious enhancement of the input can only become part of a metalinguistic or learned system and will not influence the shape of the subconscious linguistic system responsible for producing natural speech. Only primary linguistic data-the type of input that drives child first -language acquisition- is available to build the underlying or acquired grammar. This reasoning is behind the acquisition/learning distinction central to Krashen's theory.

(Kassabgy et al., 2004: 117)

One of the major dangers of such a debate between the opposing views is that they often lead their followers to either one or the other choice. While one should try to realize the strength and weakness of both the groups and should attempt to bridge the gap by developing a consensus. At this juncture the role of the teacher and the material producer become significant because it is they who lead a certain course. They must remember that in order to communicate effectively the learners must not just know how to use language correctly, rather they must also know how to use it appropriately.

Such a situation therefore makes the teaching of grammar an extremely challenging task.

#### **4.3.4.3 Use and Usage**

Another dichotomy that was debated, raised and finally incorporated into the pedagogic grammar is Widdowson's distinction between 'usage' and 'use'.

Widdowson (1978:18), who gave this concept, explains the two terms in the following manner:

Usage is recitations of the words and sentences as manifestations of the language system, and the second (language use) is the way the system is realized for normal communicative purposes. Knowing a language is often taken to mean having a knowledge of correct usage but this knowledge is of little utility on its own: It has to be complemented by a knowledge of appropriate use. A knowledge of 'use' must of necessity include a knowledge of 'usage' but the reverse is not the case...

(Widdowson, 1978:18)

If we look at these two terms visa-vis de Sassure's concept of 'langue' and 'parole' or for that matter Chomsky's concept of 'Competence' and 'Performance', both 'Usage' and 'Use' belong to the category of performance. It is so because 'Usage' Widdowson (1978: 3) claims:

makes evident the extent to which the language user demonstrates his knowledge of linguistic rules. 'Use' is another aspect of performance which makes evident which makes the extent to which the language user demonstrates his ability to use his knowledge of linguistic rules. For effective communication

(Widdowson, 1978: 3)

It can be said therefore that performance involves Widdowson (1978: 3) further states "the simultaneous manifestation of the language system as 'usage' and its realization as 'use'. Widdowson (1978:03)

Richards J. et al. (1985:302) explains usage as a function of the linguistic item

"as an element in linguistic system and 'use' as function of linguistic item as a part of a system of communication. It

further explains that the meaning 'a linguistic item has an example of usage is called all its 'signification' and the meaning it has an example of this, is called its value.

Usage can be exemplified as having the knowledge of 'simple present tense' which can be 'used' for the purpose of such communicative acts as 'descriptions', for instance.

With regards to the pedagogic purposes, the teacher trainers and even the material producers started to realize that learners are required to be trained in the appropriate communicative use of the frequent linguistic rules 'usage'. It has often been observed especially in Indian situation that the students have mastered the linguistic rules 'usage' but are not able to appropriately use them in the right context. Therefore, Widdowson (1978:15) suggests:

The value of the items selected for a course then can be partially realized by the grading process. The completion of the realization takes place when these language items are presented in the classroom as instances of actual use. As has already been implied, this is no easy task, particularly when the language course is a 'general' one and when, therefore, the ultimate communicative behaviour of the learners has not been clearly defined. As was pointed out at the beginning of this chapter, it is not very satisfactory to speak, understand, write and read the words and structures of a language. We might do better to think instead in terms of the ability to use the language for communicative purposes. But if we think in this way, the potential value of the items we select and their realization as use through grading and presentation have to relate to particular areas of use, what we have to think of, in other words, are particular kinds of communication, particular ways of using the language, as a necessary preliminary to the preparation of the course we are to teach. A common assumption among language teachers seems to be, as pointed out earlier, that the essential task is to teach a selection of words and structures, that is to say elements of usage, and that this alone will provide for communicative needs in whichever area of use is relevant to the learner at a more advanced stage. What I am suggesting is that we should think of an area (or areas) of use right from the beginning base our selection, grading and presentation on that. Only in this way, it seems to me, can we ensure that we are teaching language as communication and not as a stock of usage which may never be realized in actual use at all.

(Widdowson, 1978:15)

### **4.3.5 Deductive and Inductive Approach**

With regard to the teaching of grammar, two approaches, namely 'deductive' and 'inductive' have often been in debate. These two terms actually refer to the approaches relating the teaching and learning process. While deductive approach refers to the usage-based, rule-governed, and teacher centered grammar teaching; the inductive approach refers to use based, learners centered and function-based teaching process. What happens in a deductive approach of teaching is that the teacher generally provides the learners with a long list of rules, certain grammar items followed by a brief practice on its use in isolation here the teacher expects the learners to memorize the long list of rules and use them as and when required. This approach has been used by the traditional method of Grammar–Translation and also by the structuralists in the form of drills of grammar rules. That is why inductive approach is called to be synonymous to memorization.

The inductive approach to grammar teaching is synonymous to discovery process. Because here the teacher in the classroom exposes the learners to a series of samples of texts relating the target grammar items to be taught; and the learners are made by teacher, through encouraging teaching strategies, to discover the grammar rules inherent in the given samples. Such a process of grammar teaching reveals the creative aspects of language and helps the learners to apply their existing grammatical competence in discovering the rules. Here the teachers facilitate the learners to discover grammatical rules by themselves. This approach to grammar teaching expects the teachers to be dynamic and innovative and saves them from strenuous listing of grammar rules. Another positive aspect of this approach is that it exposes the learners to the actual language use and makes them understand the grammar rules in appropriate manners.

## **4.4 PLACE OF GRAMMAR IN ELT METHODS AND APPROACHES**

The place of grammar in the English Language Teaching courses have often kept switching over the centuries depending on the prevalent convention / practice or the dominant theories of language analysis and language learning premised on which several ELT methods were propounded one after

the other. Some of the ELT Methods are being discussed below in order to identify the place and role of grammar in the English Language Teaching programmes.

#### **4.4.1 Grammar – Translation Method**

This method ruled the world for more than a century. The main concentration of this method was to help learners to acquire the knowledge of the target language. This method did not focus on spoken form of language.

O'Grady et al. (1993) suggest

This method emphasizes reading, writing, translation, and the conscious learning of grammatical rules. Its primary goal is to develop literary mastery of the second language. Memorization is the main learning strategy and students spend their class time talking about the language instead of talking in the language. The curriculum requires the memorization of paradigms, patterns and vocabulary, with translation being used to test the acquired knowledge. Consequently, the role of L1 is quite prominent.

(O'Grady et al., 1993)

The G.T. Method dominated in Europe for foreign language teaching/learning for almost a century ranging from 1840 to 1940. But the earliest course for language learning teaching based on G.T. method was published by J.C. Fick in South Germany in 1779.

The German Scholars like John Seidenstucker, Karl Plotz, H.S. Ollendorf, and John Meidinger were the main force behind the exploration and implementation of the G.T. Method moreover, an American teacher B.Sears too used this method as Prussian Method from 1845 onwards.

Grammar learning/teaching was totally based on the goal of helping students to read and appreciate foreign language and literature. Interacting grammar learning/teaching second language was used as it was believed, to translate in and out of the target language. The grammar learning/teaching was consisted of the memorization of the rules of the various sentence patterns, various grammar was taught prescriptively guided by the rules of the target language as well as greater emphasis was paid on accuracy.

Mostly the experts of EFL believe that G.T. Method is the invention of eighteenth century and in 19<sup>th</sup> century. They adopted the strategy of linking grammatical rules with translation. G.T. Method has been accepted by the experts as a role model and became the ideal method to teach modern languages in the curriculum.

#### **4.4.2 DIRECT METHOD**

This method was based on the assumption that a second language can be learnt in the same manner as a child learns the first language. The direct method facilitated a learning classroom which seems natural and contextual. There was no emphasis on the explicit instruction of grammatical aspect but one-to-one communication got motivated.

The direct Method emerged as a reaction against the G.T. Method. It was developed in the later nineteenth century when entire world need a language for the communication in different fields like business, traveling, International exchanges, political and economic reasons.

There were many languages spoken in various countries but this was the main hurdle for the people to increase opportunities in different fields. Hence they were looking for a language used in Europe for communication. Hence nineteenth century Direct Method was innovated.

The main objective of the Direct Method is the ability to communicate in the (T.L.) target language.

The main focus of this method is to develop their (students) thinking (LSRW) but emphasizes for the correct pronunciation vocabulary also has a great importance than the grammar.

the Direct Method has one very basic rule: No translation is allowed" (Diller 1978 : 23).

It emphasized learning of language in a contextual manner and the avoidance of mother tongue was preferred while the meanings were taught through action and demonstration. More emphatically, it was a monolingual approach.

The major contributor for this method were Pendergast and Sanver (1826-1907). They devised a Natural Method which was advice from the G.T. Method. The same method later came to be known as Direct Method. German Scholar I. Frank too deals with the psychological aspect of language learning where they discussed the principle of direct association before you the form and meanings in target language learning.

The role of grammar in the Direct Method was quite in contrast with that of G.T. Method.

Richard and Rodgers (1968, quoted in Geeta Nagraj, p. 78) State that:

Grammar was not taught explicitly and deductively as in the G.T. class but was learned largely through practice. Students were encouraged to draw their own structural generalization from what they had been learning by and inductive process. In this way, the study of grammar was kept at a functional level, being confined to those areas which were continually being used in speech, when grammar was taught more systematically, at a later stage, it was taught in the foreign language with the use of foreign languages terminology.

Richard and Rodgers (1968, quoted in Geeta Nagraj, p. 78)

The presentation of categorized sentence in form of short discourses were meant to improve only communicative ability with greater emphasis on clarity, stress, and pronunciation. Students were encouraged to deduce grammatical rules through the structure presented in the classroom on their own.

#### **4.4.3 Audio-lingual Method**

This is an extension and modification of the Direct Method. The main goal lies in the development of oral fluency as translation and use of native language who not permitted in language classroom. It worked on the notion of the mechanistic process of habit formation comprising dialogue memorization and pattern drills. It deals with the vocabulary acquisition as well as the drills of grammatical sentence patterns. This method was focused (Nagraj, Geeta, 1996: 79) refers

to demonstrate the fact that a language teaching method can be based on rigorous scientific disciplines like linguistics and psychology.

The Audio-lingual Method treated all the form skills separately. The main tool to learn language through this method was dialogue – presentation in language laboratory.

The emergence of Audio-Lingual Method can be traced back to language teaching programme devised in America during the 2<sup>nd</sup> world war. The involvement in the Second World War of America needed a great supply of war personnel fluent in languages like German, Italian, Chinese, French, and Japanese etc. who can various actions of language.

Charles Fries (1945) of the University of Michigan developed this method using structuralist theory which was later added by the behavioural psychological theories of conditioning by Skinner (1957).

The learning of grammar was not emphasized directly but was learned through the acquisition of various grammatical sentence patterns. All the grammatical points like Direct Method, were deduced after the presentation of sentences pattern in the contextualized discourse.

#### **4.4.4 The Oral – Situational Language Teaching**

In 1920s an approach for language teaching in a systematic way was evolved. This included the mechanized steps of selection, gradation and presentation of language items and context to be practiced in language learning classroom. This approach came to be known as oral approach to language teaching. In oral approach the spoken language item was followed by written forms as these language items were practiced situationally after a brief introduction. Later this principle of situationality became the key feature of oral approach and got a new name as Oral – Situational Approach.

The linguist like Hornby, Palmer was behind the exploration of this method. The linguist like Gurrey, Frisby, Billows and Fittman too contributed emphatically for the development of this method. Especially, Fittman and his colleagues developed a tremendous set of practice material. The approach



got its existence in 1920s and 1930s as linguists like Hornby and Palmer worked a lot to set a launch pad of this approach.

The teaching/learning of grammar followed as systematic rule of shifting learning from simple to complex items. The grammar contents were learnt through an oral approach. Grammar was received as the “underlying sentence pattern of spoken language”. (Richards and Rodgers 1968: 33).

#### **4.4.5 Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)**

This approach argued by O’Grady et al. (1993).

“Merely knowing how to produce a grammatically correct sentence is not enough. A communicatively competent person must also know how to produce an appropriate, natural, and socially acceptable utterance in all contexts of communication ‘Hey’, buddy, you fix my car! is grammatically correct but not as effective in most social context as ‘excuse me, Sir, I was wondering whether I could have my car fixed today ... (communication competence) includes having a grammatical knowledge of the system, ... Knowledge of the appropriateness of language use ... (such as ) socio cultural knowledge, paralinguistic (facial and gestural) and proxemic (special) knowledge, and Sensitivity to the level of language use in the certain situations and relationships.

The major goal of C.L.T. (communicative language Teaching) is to develop communicative ability in language learner by acknowledging the interdependence of language and communication. (Larsen - Freeman, 2004: 121) state as

Although the earlier discussed methods were quite capable of making students utter grammatically accurate sentences in classrooms yet those methods were partially successful in helping students to produce and use sentences appropriately outside of classroom setting. So in 1970s several linguistics and educators started thinking that the production of sentences should be combined with its genuine communicative use as being able to communicate require more than mastery of linguistic structures.

The linguists like Widdowson (1978), Wilkins (1976), and Hymes D. (1971) came with the innovations like ‘Use/Usage,’ ‘Communicative functions,’ and ‘Communicative Competence’ respectively.

The role of grammar in communicative language Teaching (CLT) is never central grammar teaching/learning takes place unconsciously while using language in communicative context.

#### **4.4.6 Total Physical Response**

O'Grady, et al. (1993) state as

It takes into consideration the silent period deemed necessary for some L2 Learner. During the first phase of Total Physical Response, students are not required to speak, instead, they concentrate on obeying simple commands in the second language. These demands eventually become more complex. For example, walk to the door becomes strength you head while you walk to the door, at the back of the classroom. Students later become more actively involved, verbally and creatively. The objective of this approach is to correct physical activity with meaningful language use as a way of instilling concepts.

Thus, this method combines the speech and action and teaches language through physical activities. More clearly, the teacher gives commands and orders the learners to perform the action according to the instruction Richards and Rodgers (1968: 92) suggest as

The psychologist James Asher developed this method combining developmental psychology, learning theory and learning pedagogy. Grammar teaching/ learning takes place inductively when teacher presents sentence structures in contextual manner. Grammatical items are learned unconsciously as they are selected. According to the situation which they can be used in the classroom and the case with which they can be learned.

#### **4.4.7 Eclectic Approach**

Sometimes a single selected method cannot be sufficiently justified to teach a language learners and classrooms unless it fulfills all the needs of the language curricula. If at any stage the methods provide a loophole for insufficiency then it should be supplemented by any other method which can have a strong point at that stage and repair that loopholes. Such type of belief gave a rise to idea of combining all the strong aspects of various methods and getting its compiled into one. This belief got its name as eclectic approach

which is a deviance from the rigid guidelines inherent in any method and flexible enough to name a number of remedial steps to be used to run the language classroom successfully. Thus, eclectic approach is a combination of all the best approaches and methods as discussed above.

So far we saw that though there has been sharp opposing views regarding the significance of teaching grammar, it has always been a part of the curriculum with its changing popularity and position with almost all the methods and approaches of English Language Teaching. In terms of English Language teaching, the teaching of grammar has undergone the following three major shifts in its focus / attention:

- (a) Grammar based,
- (b) Situation based, and
- (c) Function - Notion based

In the elaboration the above three we will see how pedagogic grammar has always been a part of the course.

#### **(a) Grammar Based**

The History of English Language Teaching has witnessed the maximum dominance of grammar-based. English Language courses. Under the aegis of the Traditional Approach – Grammar-Translation Method – the teaching of grammar was so crucial that it almost became synonymous to language teaching. This phase of dominance of grammar in language teaching was continued for centuries, until the emergence of modern linguistics. Modern linguistics look at language in a new perspective and hence a change was brought into the language teaching methodologies.

Hence, the traditional Latin modelled Grammar-Translation Method was replaced by a Modern, Structuralism – based teaching methodologies. Such a replacement brought in obvious changes in the general outlook, approach and theorization of the methods. But so far a quantum of the amount of grammar items available in the above mentioned methods remained the same with a slight change in the handling of the grammar items

in the shape of teaching techniques and strategies in the actual classroom situation; for instance prescriptivism was replaced by the descriptivism.

Hence grammar continued to maintained its central position from the tradition. Grammar-Translation Method to the American Audiolingualism and the British Oral-Situational Method. These methods were based on the assumption that language is a set of rules/language is a system of systems. This type of dominance of grammar was reflected in the material's tool produced at those points of time.

#### **(b) Situation Based**

By the mid to the 18<sup>th</sup> century the diction changed and linguists and teachers came to believe that language is a means of communication rather than being a major set of rules. Hence having assure that language is used in certain situations in the real life of the researchers premised the language teaching methods of materials on the expected situations of language use. Therefore, the units and chapters of the situation based causes listed such items/titles as "In the bank", "At the Airport", "At the railway station", "In the office" etc. These chapters and units included a coverage of grammar and lexical items related to the situations.

The situation based courses did not include all the common place grammatical items, rather included and stressed in such items which were expected to be required by the learners after the completion of the course.

#### **(c) Function – Notion Based**

The consolidation of the communicative approach made the researchers and linguists realise that the situational approach had certain major practical limitations. For instance it is difficult to the edict the situations which the learners are expected to face after the completion of the course in their real lives. Secondly, even if the situations are listed, it will be practically impossible to teach each one of them in the classroom situations. Hence the situation based model was replaced by the one based on function and notion. This model was premised on the assumption that language is used in the

society to perform certain functions and that language is a means of communication.

Here the materials came up with such titles and as “describing persons and places,” “giving and taking instructions,” “giving directions,” “writing reports,” “writing letters of thanks, regret, condolence, greetings,” etc. under the heads of these titles the related grammatical vocabulary items are talked. For instance an attempt is made to teach simple present tense and statements/assertive sentences while teaching prescriptions, imperative sentence and sequence words while teaching instructions; and use of passive voice while teaching writing reports.

In the above discussion – in terms of language teaching methods and even in terms of the shifts in language teaching courses – we saw that grammar has always been a cardinal part of the language teaching and learning process. Such a situation maintained the importance and the significance of the role and place of the pedagogic grammar.

#### **4.5 COMPONENTS OF PEDAGOGIC GRAMMAR**

In the light of the above discussion on the significance of the pedagogic grammar, let's try to define it once again and identify its components.

The pedagogic grammar has often been confined as grammar for pedagogs. Corder (1975, quoted in Martin Bygate et al. 1994: 32) observes

some people preferred to restrict the use of the term [Pedagogical grammar] to those statements about, and exemplifications of, the language which are for the use of teacher rather than of learners, the object of which is then to guide the teacher in the way he is to present the language material to his pupils.

However Greenbaum (1986, quoted in Martin Bygate et al. 1994: 33) observes it differently and claims:

Pedagogical grammars [that is, grammar books] teach the language and not about the language. They are inherently prescriptive, since their purpose is to tell students what to say or write.

In order to establish a distinction between reference grammar and pedagogic grammars, Greenbaum (1987) identifies the following four types of grammar books.

- (i) Reference grammar
- (ii) Pedagogical grammar
- (iii) Teach-Yourself
- (iv) Theoretical

He defines reference grammars meant for self help, while a pedagogic grammar, to him, is a course book. Like Greenbaum, Crystal (1987) list the following six types of grammar

- (i) Descriptive grammar
- (ii) Pedagogical grammar
- (iii) Prescriptive grammar
- (iv) Reference grammar
- (v) Theoretical grammar
- (vi) Traditional grammar

Crystal defines only three of this list as types of grammar that seem to apply the actual books. He says that reference grammars must be comprehensive for example *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language* (1985) by Quirk et. al. By prescriptive grammars he means books of usage for native speakers, such as Fowler's *Modern English Usage* (1926). About pedagogical grammar he says that they are meant specially designed for teaching a foreign language.

Dirven (1990, quoted in Martin Bygate et al. 1994: 34) resolves whether the pedagogic grammar is meant for teachers or for learners, when he defines pedagogic grammar as

A cover term for any learner – or teacher – oriented description or presentation of foreign language rule complexes with the aim of promoting and guiding learning process in the acquisition of the language.

The further says that pedagogic grammar may be prescriptive or descriptive and that it may be a teaching grammar or reference grammar. Chalker (1984, quoted in Martin Bygate et al. 1994: 34) the pedagogic grammar thus, may be called to have the following features:

- (i) It can be for reference grammar for course work.
- (ii) It should be comprehensive
- (iii) It should ideally combine prescription with description because it deals with the grammatical rules.
- (iv) It is meant for both learners and teachers in order to help, learn a foreign/second language.

The above points refer to the features of a pedagogic grammar. Greenbaum describes the following five desirable characteristics of a book on pedagogic grammar. (Greenbaum quoted in Martin Bygate, 1994: 33)

- (i) It must be constrained by the length of class lessons.
- (ii) It should be determined on psycholinguistic grounds (e.g.. in accordance with the best methods for learning a foreign language).
- (iii) Grammar topics and material should be graded.
- (iv) Learners should be helped by having their attention drawn to general rules.
- (v) It should provide for practical applications (possibly with exercise in a separate book).

The above characteristics as provided by Greenbaum suggests that the pedagogic grammar should be practical (the length of class lessons), in terms of teachability, applicable to the real life situations, well designed and appropriate in terms of learnability, and the presentation of grammatical rules should be as per appropriate psycholinguistic theorization. Besides, a pedagogic grammar should suit the overall curricular aim and objectives of a language programme.

In the chapter so far we could realize that grammar is an inherent part of the language learning and teaching process. It was also observed that grammar has always been taught as a part of language curricular in various shades under the influence of the latest theories of the respective times. It was only with the emergence of linguistics in the 20<sup>th</sup> century that a debate was initiated on the role and place, type, quantity and methodology of grammar teaching which as a consequence brought in certain shifts in its teaching under the influence of various language teaching methods. In a nutshell it can be stated that, besides certain objections, grammar has always been important as a means of achieving proficiency in a second or foreign language. The grammar that was/is taught is known as pedagogic grammar. Since the pedagogic grammar is to be taught by the teachers to the students, it needs to match the criteria of 'learnability' and 'teachability', 'appropriacy', 'the learners needs' and the curricular aims. That means a course in pedagogic grammar should be easy and convenient for the learners to understand and also for teachers to handle in the classroom. Such an expectation from the classroom situation makes the production of materials on pedagogic grammar more challenging for the material producers.

If we look at the shape of the pedagogic grammar in the Indian situations, it has undergone a remarkable change over the centuries. English language teaching was in India a much before the emergence of the government policy in the name of Macauley's minute (1835). In the colonial phase the books of English Language were imported from Britain. The English language that time was dominated by grammar items and was basically bilingual in its approach and methodology. This was so because of the influence of the, then practice of Grammar Translation Method. This practice dominated the foreign language teaching scenario until the 1950's. The E.L.T. courses kept changing in the post independent phase as per the advancement in the linguistics theories and the policies and provisions of the government. Khan (1999: 2) states as:

Serious attempts have been made at the university level to develop curricula in English to meet the specific needs of the six faculties of the university in Kuwait. Several studies carried



out in Libya (Robinson 1985), Saudi Arabia (Roe 1980), Sudan (Andrews 1984), Oman (Adams Smith 1984), and Jordan (Zughoul 1985) mark the continuity of concern in this direction. ESL research even in Britain and America, especially after the advent of 'Communicative' pedagogy has been paying increasing attention to the problem of faculty views and student perceptions.

Even the books on pedagogic grammar kept on changing with the above changes. The latest books on pedagogic grammar for Indian schools and colleges have been developed by NCERT, CIEFL experts depending on the latest approach of notional-function grammar.

The above discussion shows that the effectiveness of pedagogic grammar, which is central to language course, depends much on the material producers. It is because of this reason that Dirven (1986) considers the pedagogic grammar to be "rich, authentic, graded texts". On the lines of Chomsky (1970), Krashen and Terrell (1983), Mindt (1981, 1982), Krashen (1976), Wode (1976) and Bess (1982), Dirven believes that the pedagogic grammar try to 'create a rich linguistic environment'. He believes that such an environment will bring second language learning closer to acquisition process. Another components that Dirven considers to be crucial for pedagogic grammar is that it should include authentic texts and situations so that the notional unit and the communicative functions of target language could be achieved. Besides this, Dirven (1986) considers selection and the gradation as the most significant component of the pedagogic grammar. He rejects the linear gradation and favours the cyclic gradation of the grammatical items when he says:

The most central problem is that of gradation of the grammatical rule complexes; gradation in the language materials must be built up in such a way that it can later repeat and extend former notions, functions and syntactic structures in ever widening concentric circles  
(Dirven, 1986: 8).

Dirven (1986: 9) talks in terms of cognitive pedagogical grammar that is "based on the findings of prototype theory and the new trend in the theoretical

linguistics based on it, namely cognitive linguistics Dirven (1986: 9). He further says:

The most important requirement of formal grammar teaching and of rule presentations is that they should promote cognitive insight into a given rule and the internalization of the rule. This stress on cognitive learning is not just a vague slogan which it is indeed in several writing-but a systematic approach in the work of the Leuven group around Professor Engels, e.g. in Engels (1970, 1974, 1977, 1980).

Dirven therefore, through the above suggestion suggests that the presentation of grammar rules and their application for various functions pedagogic grammar should balance.

Sylvia Chalker has listed the following specific issues which are significant in the writing of a pedagogic grammar:

#### **4.5.1 Organization**

This refers to the overall organizations of a book on pedagogic grammar, this raising such issues as whether to arrange in a linear manner or as set of systems. The traditional books, for instance, have been seen to organize the grammar rules, starting with chapter on parts of speech as basic. That is, traditionally the pedagogic grammar has often been organized on the criteria of form. It is only later that a compromise was made in the organization of grammar items on the basis of form-based and function-based approaches. Such school grammar as the once written by Wren and Martin, Nesfield, etc. basically carry form-based organization of grammar items, while Collins Cobuild English Grammar (ed. Sinclair, 1990) reflects the organization of grammar items on the basis of functions and meanings.

#### **4.5.2 Locations and Indexing of Items**

This component of a pedagogic grammar as, propounded by Dirven, refers to the sequencing of grammatical items within the general framework of a book on pedagogic grammar. Because of the conceptual variation among the grammarians the sequencing of the grammatical rules under certain hats often vary. Dirven (1990) cites one such example in the following lines:

It looks as if research on pedagogical grammar can only make progress if it tackles the real learning problems and if it manages to do so in a large-scale joint venture.

The aspects of sequencing is related to the nomenclature, categorization and classification of grammatical rules that has changed remarkably from the traditional to the modern grammar, which as a consequence have been reflected in the books published under the influence of these two types of grammars.

Generally, the books on pedagogic grammar sequence the grammar rules according to a difficulty level-i.e. from simple to complex.

#### **4.5.3 Contextualization**

This is another very significant component of pedagogic grammar the traditional books on pedagogic grammar were generally deductive in approach, which use to list the rules followed by exercises based on isolated sentences. The concept of communicative competence by Dell Hymes and developments in discourse analysis made the grammarians realize that a grammatically correct sentence, proves to be unacceptable if used out of context. Hence the questions of acceptability, appropriacy, clarity, intelligibility and correctness are interrelated and context based and need to taken care of in pedagogic grammar. Though some books of pedagogic grammar have been produced on these lines, yet there is a need for more books with an inclusion of such grammar items as cohesive and linking devices and other strategic skills that will help the learners in the implementation of grammatical forms into language functions.

The above components of pedagogic grammar, as suggested by Dirven, are mainly related to the aspects of material production. In addition to this, since the pedagogic grammar has consistently been the part of the language teaching programmes, an attention should be paid to its effectiveness in the actual classroom situations. For which and awareness through training needs to be raised among the teachers with regard to the handling of the pedagogic grammar, appropriate teaching techniques and strategies, the appropriate use of prescriptivism and descriptivism, the

approaches to grammar teaching the adaptation techniques and other relevant issues.

#### **4.6 DEBATE ON THE RELEVANCE OF GRAMMAR TEACHING IN ELT**

On the basis of the discussion so far it can be easily stated that the teaching of grammar in language programmes has never been ignored. That is it has always been relevant and central in its status. In section 4.4 of the present chapter we saw the presence of grammar items in all the ELT Methods. Sometimes occupying a central position (e.g. in Grammar-Translation Method and Audio-Lingual Method) while sometimes at the periphery (e.g. in Communicative and Eclectic Approaches). Likewise while once it was taught deductively, at other instances it was handled inductively. But grammar always remained the very part and parcel of language courses.

The teaching of grammar has been perceived differently by its consumers. While some learners and teachers liked it, the others at to lump it as a part of language courses. Michael West (1952, cited in W.R. Lee 1967: 29, *ELT Selections* 1) perceives grammar as

a preventive and corrective medicine safeguarding or rectifying those points of word-use which are (perhaps owing to the analogy of the mother tongue specially liable to error.

Hannan (1989), (cited in Nachiengmai Yawalak's article, *The Teaching of Grammar in Thai TESOL, Bulletin*, Vol. 10, No. 2, Aug. 1997) considers "grammar is highly valuable as an important part of the study of language, of ideas, and of writing".

Garner (cited in *TESOL Bulletin*, Vol. 10, No. 2, August 1997) in Nachiengmai Yawalak's *The Teaching Grammar* believes that: "grammar gives us a means to analyze and describe our language".

Regarding the purpose of grammar teaching in a language course Nachiengmai (cited in *TESOL Bulletin*, Vol. 10, No. 2, August 1997) observes

The main goal in grammar teaching is to enable learners to achieve linguistic competence and to be able to use grammar as a tool or resource in the comprehension and

creation of oral and written discourse efficiently, and appropriately according to the situation. Celce-Murcia and Hilles (1988) are in agreement with Larsen-Freeman (1991) that grammar should never be taught as an end in itself but always with reference to meaning, social functions, or discourse, or a combination of these factors. In other words, teachers are required to have knowledge of linguistics, because teaching grammar as meaning and discourse entails a knowledge of syntax.

Garner (1989: 209) considers the significant role of the teacher in grammar teaching and instincts that:

The teacher should be able to explain, when it is appropriate, a point of grammar accurately and succinctly to non-native learners.

Even Lewis (1986: 20) observes the same when he suggests that the teacher should "Stop explaining, start exploring."

Above mentioned were some of the instances where some linguists give their views in favour of grammar teaching. Oppose to them there are others who are against the practice of erroneous grammar teaching.

Smith and Cawley (1957) perceive grammar as a dull and dried a subject and believe that it is boring. Cawley (1957, cited in Kohli, A.L. 1999: 138) believes as: "teaching of grammar is a waste of time."

Brumfit and Johnson (1979: 165) observe that

the study of grammar as such is neither necessary nor sufficient for learning to use a language.

They further explained that

The students' craving for explicit formalization of generations can usually be met better by textbooks and grammars that he reads outside class than by discussion in class.

Michael West (1952: 68) refers to the ineffective teaching of grammar, when he says that:

There is probably no subject on the school timetable on which more time is expanded unprofitably than English grammar.

The reason for the lack of utility of grammar teaching or even the repulsive attitude towards it can be easily sorted out in the following extract from Shastri (1987, cited in CIFEL – *Teaching Grammar* Block-1, 1995: 26-29) where he talks of the mismatch between the principle and practice of grammar teaching, explains the three types of operative grammars on the learners, and also suggests for the innovative role of the teachers in grammar teaching.

A distinction is traditionally made between three kinds of grammar. This is a useful distinction for the teacher. The three kinds of grammar can be called G1, G2, G3.

Now read this extract from H N L Sastri (1987):

1. Grammar is the *total mechanism* which a language possesses and through which its users are able to communicate with each other. (To avoid confusion, let us call this Grammar 1 or G1).

Every native speaker of a language, literate or illiterate, knows and controls his or her G1; without this, communication is not possible—Each language possesses a distinctive G1, peculiar to itself — although some linguists maintain that the G1s, of all languages, though superficially different from each other, are the same at some deeper level.

2. *Grammar* refers also to the formal *analysis* and description of the rules of the language. (Let us call this Grammar 2 or G2).

The illiterate native speaker of a language may know its G1 but not its G2. However, when s/he begins to think about language *consciously*, to wonder what should be said in a particular situation in order to get the 'message' across, s/he is involved in the G2 of the language; ("Yesterday I saw two mongooses — or should that be mongeese?"),

A distinction is thus made between *formal grammar* (G2) which codifies and presents the 'facts about a language' and *functional grammar* (G1) which merely illustrates the correct use of the language.

3. Grammar refers also to the *rules for the correct use of a language*, which may be *prescribed* for its users. (Let us call this Grammar 3 or G3)

A "grammar" of the kind produced by Nesfield consists largely of rules which a learner is expected to master. But some modern grammars merely describe the facts of the language, instead of prescribing rules. This leads us to distinguish between a *descriptive* and a *prescriptive* grammar; between a G2 and G3. The linguist is concerned only with G2 whereas the language teacher may be more concerned with G3.

### **Discussion**

This is what H N L Sastri (1987) says:

Every learner of English must ultimately learn the G1 of English, since this is what enables him/her to use the language.

As for the teacher no matter what one is teaching in the English class, if s/he is using the language correctly and making his/her students use it correctly, s/he is contributing to the learning of G1. The professor of poetry is also teaching G1, though s/he may not realise that s/he is teaching *grammar*.

What the 'grammar lesson' teaches, however, is the G2 or the G3 of English. But does the teaching of G2 or G3 help the student in learning G1?

The Indian situation seems to provide a ready answer to that question. Many of our students know a lot of G2 or G3 (this, at least, is what their marks in the school examination indicate), but they can neither speak nor write correctly; their G1 is poor.

On the other hand, a student can certainly be made proficient in G1 without any exposure to G2 or G3 — this is what happens in the case of native speakers, and could happen with a student who is able to learn in the same way as a native speaker -- that is through constant "exposure" to the language. This is what we find in the case of students of the best English medium schools in our own country. .

If the teaching of G2 (or G3) does not ensure the learning of G1, why is it taught?

Partly, this is a hangover from the scholarly tradition which emphasized the study of grammar (G2) as a mental discipline; it is also partially due to a failure to distinguish between G1 and G2.

It would not be true to think that all teachers are happy about this. In fact, the reaction against the teaching of G2 and G3 has gone to the other extreme: in many cases teachers are warned that they should "teach the language not *about* the language".

This new approach emphasizes, as we have already seen, the practice of language in meaningful situations: oral drilling, pattern-practice, substitution exercises, etc. The student is systematically exposed to G1 (functional Grammar) by the teacher, and the learner absorbs as much of it as s/he can.

At the initial stages of learning, there is no attempt to make the student think *consciously* about language or to provide explanations of any kind. Formal grammar (G2) is rigorously excluded, as it is believed that explanations will only confuse the young learner who does not possess the maturity to benefit from them.

But after several years of learning, when the learner has gained sufficient control over G1, it is felt that s/he may be exposed to some formal grammar (G2), as this helps to systematize and consolidate what s/he already knows of G1.

At this stage, the exponents of the new approach maintain, the *kind* of G2 selected for teaching should be carefully considered.



Nesfield-type grammars which rigorously prescribe rules (which are no longer valid in most cases), or which provide explanations or categorizations drawn from Latin and are in no way applicable to modern English, should be replaced by more modern 'scientific' grammars, based on current linguistic research.

The teacher is often told that "traditional" (Nesfield-type) grammars are useless; but unfortunately there is, so far, no 'scientific' grammar available which can describe or explain *all* the facts of English. However, attempts are being made to produce the 'perfect' grammar.

The current feeling is that an adequate G2 should explain to the learner what happens in language and provide rational insights into the process of communication as well as of language acquisition. It is not the business of a G2 merely to prescribe rules, or catalogue the observed facts of a language.

Hitherto, some teachers have been very emphatic about one thing: not even the best G2 can really ensure that the student learns G1. The answer is to provide more and more practice, without wasting time over formalizations.

But, as we have been emphasizing, we are less sure today that we really know how language is acquired. There may be good reason to believe that the learner of language is not simply a robot who can be put through his/her paces mechanically; each learner may be a miniature grammarian, trying to construct his/her own private G2 out of whatever s/he observes in G1, and constantly experimenting with the G2 that s/he produces for himself/herself.

In any case, it is unrealistic to hope that the Indian learner can get enough practice in the use of English G1 to be able to *absorb* it, as a native speaker does. There isn't enough English around us for this to happen.

The teacher will have to compensate for the lack of available practice, and provide a short-cut to the learning, process. This is where an explanatory, insightful G2 can help.

But G2 has to grow out of G1: the explanations and insight? are derived from exposure to language. (This is what seems to happen with the native child too.) We can only generalise on the basis of what we experience; the explanations cannot *precede* the exposure. Usually, grammar (G2) is taught and examined in isolation from all other parts of the language course. Grammar is even separated from composition. In the grammar class, the teacher merely provides the rules for correct writing; the actual production of writing is left to the composition class. There is thus a divorce between the theory and practice of G1.

This approach to the teaching of Grammar (G2) is linguistically unsound and pedagogically undesirable. Grammar does not exist in isolation from language: language vs. grammar. The objective in teaching grammar (G2) to the ordinary student is to improve his/her receptive and productive language skills — to make him/her a better user of language — and not to give him/her a lot of specialised information *about* language. Such G2 as is taught should only be *incidental to the teaching of language skills*. The grammar lesson should emerge out of the language material being used to inculcate the other skills. The course book, or the text being used to develop the skills of reading and comprehension, as well as vocabulary, should (ideally) form the basis of the grammar lesson too.

What we are advocating is the use of text-based grammar. Grammars of the Nesfield-type, or even more 'modern' grammars like W.S. Allen's *Living English Structure* (used in many schools and colleges) have one great disadvantage: none of the examples given to illustrate a grammatical point is *contextualised*. An awareness of grammatical rules develops only when language is used in proper contexts. Furthermore, the language material (corpus) used to

illustrate a grammatical principle should be related to the student's experience of language; and in the Indian situation, the student may have no other experience of the English language except that provided by his/ her textbook (and the teacher). So it is important to make use of the reading text for introducing grammatical explanations, etc.

In actual practice, however, the text used for teaching the reading skills may prove to be unsuitable for teaching grammar. The reason is that to illustrate a point of grammar adequately, we need several *repetitions* of the pattern involved, and we don't normally find so many repetitions in a piece of text. The teacher may, therefore, have to *write* his/her own text, using suitable material, to teach grammar.

#### **4.7 SUMMING UP**

The present chapter, therefore, takes up such issues pertaining to grammar that have been debated over the centuries at the pedagogic level. In order to do so the terms 'grammar' and 'pedagogic grammar' have been defined afresh, keeping in mind the recent issues in grammar teaching. An attempt has been made to discuss such aspects pertaining to grammar as "Traditional vs. Modern Grammar," "Prescriptive vs. Descriptive," "Correctibility vs. Acceptability," "the Concept of World Classes," "Form and Function," "Use and Usage," "Inductive and Deductive Approaches." One section each of this chapter has been assigned to discuss 'the components of pedagogic grammar' and 'the place of grammar in ELT Methods.' This chapter finally discusses the 'debate on the relevance of grammar teaching in ELT'.

The main aim of this chapter is to compile the debatable issues that came especially after the emergence of Modern Linguistics with regard to pedagogic grammar. It was found that grammar has always been a part and parcel of a language teaching programme, be it the phase of structuralism or that of communicative approach. The recent trends have certainly changed the extent of grammar items in the language course and even the teaching and learning methodology. The last couple of decades have especially

stressed on the innovative role of the teachers and the importance of functional grammar.

This chapter provides a wholesome picture of the debatable issues and suggests for bridging of the gap between the various dichotomies at pedagogic level.

## REFERENCES

1. CIEFL (1995). *Modern English Grammar and Usage*, Block-1, Unit-1, CIEFL, Hyderabad, India.
2. Synclair, J. (Ed.), (1995) *Collins Cobuild Dictionary*. Harpur Collins Publishers, London.
3. Richards, J. et al. (1992). *Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics*, Longman, U.K
4. Wehmier, Salley and Hornby A.S. (Ed), (2005) *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* 7<sup>th</sup> edition, Oxford University Press, New York.
5. *New Webster's Dictionary and Thesaurus and Medical Dictionary* (1991), Book Essentials Inc. New York
6. Robinson, Mairi (Ed.), (2004). *Chambers 21<sup>st</sup> Century Dictionary*, Chambers Harrap Publishers.
7. Landau, Sidney I. (Ed.), (1978) *Webster Illustrated Contemporary Dictionary*. Encyclopaedic Edition. JG. Ferguson Publishing Co. International Edition.
8. *Merriam-Webster's Collegiates Dictionary* (2001) 10<sup>th</sup> edition by *Encyclopaedia Britannica* (India) Pvt. Ltd. Merriam-Webster Incorporated.
9. Bloomsbary's, *Concise English Dictionary* (2005).
10. CIEFL (1995) *Modern English Grammar and Usage*. Block-1, Unit-1, CIEFL, Hyderabad, India.
11. CIEFL (1995) *Modern English Grammar and Usage*. Block-1, Unit-1, CIEFL: Hyderabad, INDIA.
12. CIEFL (1995) *Modern English Grammar and Usage*. Block-1, Unit-1, CIEFL: Hyderabad, INDIA.

13. Driven, R. (1986) *Pedagogical Grammar*. In *State of the Art-Article*, published by University of Duisburg, Federal Republic of Germany.
14. CIEFL (1995) *Modern English Grammar and Usage*. Block-1, Unit-1, CIEFL: Hyderabad, INDIA.
15. Corder, S. Pit (1974). *Pedagogical Grammar or the Pedagogy of Grammar?* In S.P Corder & E. Roulet (eds.), 167-73.
16. Corder, S. Pit (1993). *Introducing Applied Linguistics?* Penguin Books, London.
17. Nida, E.A. (1960) A Synopsis of English Syntax. In Corder, S. Pit (1993). *Introducing Applied Linguistics?* Penguin Books, London.
18. Thomas, O. (1965). *Transformational Grammar and the Teacher of English*. In S. Pit Corder (1993) *Introducing Applied Linguistics*, Penguin Books, England.
19. Whitehall, H. (1951) *The Structural Essentials of English*. In S. Pit. Corder (1993) *Introducing Applied Linguistics* Penguin Books, England.
20. Mindt, D. (1981) *Linguistische Grammatik, didaktische Grammatik und Padgogische Grammatik*. Neusprachaliche, Mitteilungen, **34**, 28-35.
21. Borner, W. & K, Vogel. (1976). *Zum Verhaltnis Von Wissenschaftlicher und Pedagogischer Grammatik in der Fremdsprachenlehre*. In W. Borner and K. Vogel (eds.) *Franzosisch Lehren und Lernen*, 7-39, Kronberg/ Ts: Scriptor.
22. Bess and Porquier (1988) In Driven, R. (1986) *Pedagogical Grammar*. In *State of the Art-Article*, published by University of Duisburg, Federal Republic of Germany.
23. Greenbaum, S. (1987). *Reference grammars and Pedagogical grammars*. *World Englishes*, 6, 3, 191-7
24. R. Dirven (1990). *Pedagogical Grammar*. *Language Teaching*, Vol.23, No.1, 1-18.

25. Vavra, Ed. (2004) Teaching Grammar as a Liberating Art (File: //A:\HPGTY.HTM).
26. Vavra, Ed. (2004) Teaching Grammar as a Liberating Art (File: //A:\HPGTY.HTM).
27. Vavra, Ed. (2004) Teaching Grammar as a Liberating Art (File: //A:\HPGTY.HTM).
28. Dineen, F.P., (1967). *An Introduction to General Linguistics*. 5<sup>th</sup> Edition. Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York.
29. Crystal, David (1997) .*The Cambridge Encyclopaedia of Language*. 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition, Cambridge University Press, U.K
30. CIEFL (1995). *Modern English Grammar and Usage*.Block-1, Unit-1, CIEFL, Hyderabad INDIA.
31. ([http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/grammar#Development\\_of\\_grammars](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/grammar#Development_of_grammars))
32. CIEFL (1995) *Modern English Grammar and Usage*. Block-1, Unit-1, CIEFL Hyderabad, INDIA.
33. CIEFL (1995) .*Modern English Grammar and Usage*. Block-1, Unit-1, CIEFL, Hyderabad, INDIA.
34. Crystal, David (1997) .*The Cambridge Encyclopaedia of Language*. 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition, Cambridge University Press, U.K.
35. ([http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/grammar#Development\\_of\\_grammars](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/grammar#Development_of_grammars))
36. Odlin, Terence (1994) *Perspectives on Pedagogical Grammar*, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, Cambridge University Press, U.K.
37. CIEFL (1995) *Modern English Grammar and Usage*. Block-1, Unit-2, CIEFL, Hyderabad, INDIA.
38. CIEFL (1995) *Modern English Grammar and Usage*. Block-1, Unit-3, CIEFL, Hyderabad, INDIA.
39. Kassabgy,N. et.al. (2004) *Contrastive Rhetoric Issues, Insights, and Pedagogy*. The American University in Cairo Press, Cairo, Egypt.

40. Kassabgy, N. et al. (2004) *Contrastive Rhetoric Issues, Insights, and Pedagogy*. The American University in Cairo Press, Cairo, Egypt.
41. Kassabgy, N. et al. (2004) *Contrastive Rhetoric Issues, Insights, and Pedagogy*. The American University in Cairo Press, Cairo, Egypt.
42. Widdowson, H.G. (1978) *Teaching Language as Communication*. Oxford University Press, U.K
43. Widdowson, H.G. (1978) *Teaching Language as Communication*. Oxford University Press, U.K
44. Widdowson, H.G. (1978) *Teaching Language as Communication*. Oxford University Press, U.K
45. Richards, J. et al. (1985) *Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics*. Longman, U.K.
46. Widdowson, H.G. (1978) *Teaching Language as Communication*. Oxford University Press, U.K.
47. O' Grady et al. (1993) *Contemporary Linguistics: An Introduction*, St. Martin's Press, New York.  
  
(<http://www.languageinindia.com/april2002/tesolbook.html#chapter2>)
48. CIEFL (1995). *Modern English Grammar and Usage*. Block-1, Unit-1, CIEFL: Hyderabad, INDIA.
49. CIEFL (1995) . *Modern English Grammar and Usage*. Block-1, Unit-2, CIEFL: Hyderabad, INDIA.
50. Diller, Karl C. (1978). *The Language Teaching Controversy*. In Larsen-Freeman, D (2004) *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching* (2<sup>nd</sup> edn.) Oxford University Press, New Delhi. India
51. Richards, Jack C. and Theodore S. Rodgers. (1968) *Approach and Methods in Language Teaching: A Description and Analysis*. In Geeta, Nagraj. (1996) *English Language Teaching: Approaches, Methods; Techniques*. Oriental Longman Ltd. 17-Chithranjan Avenue, Calcutta. India.



52. Geeta, Nagraj. (1996) *English Language Teaching: Approaches, Methods; Techniques*. Oriental Longman Ltd. 17-Chithranjan Avenue, Calcutta. India.
53. Richards, Jack C. and Theodore S. Rodgers. (1968). *Approach and Methods in Language Teaching: A Description and Analysis*. Cambridge University Press, U.K.
54. O' Grady et al. (1993) *Contemporary Linguistics: An Introduction*, St. Martin's Press, New York.  
  
(<http://www.languageinindia.com/april2002/tesolbook.html#chapter2>)
55. D. Larsen-Freeman (2004) *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching* (2<sup>nd</sup> edn.) Oxford University Press, New Delhi. India.
56. O' Grady et al. (1993) *Contemporary Linguistics: An Introduction*, St. Martin's Press, New York.  
  
(<http://www.languageinindia.com/april2002/tesolbook.html#chapter2>)
57. Richards, Jack C. and Theodore S. Rodgers. (1968). *Approach and Methods in Language Teaching: A Description and Analysis*. Cambridge University Press, U.K.
58. S Pit. Corder. (1975) In Bygate, M. et. al. (1994) *Grammar and the Language*. Prentice Hall International, U.K.
59. Greenbaum (1986) In Bygate, M. et. al. (1994) *Grammar and the Language*. Prentice Hall International, U.K.
60. Greenbaum (1987) In Bygate, M. et. al. (1994) *Grammar and the Language*. Prentice Hall International, U.K.
61. Dirven (1990) In Bygate, M. et. al. (1994) *Grammar and the Language*. Prentice Hall International, U.K.
62. Chalker. (1990). *Pedagogical Grammar : Principles and Problems* (ed.). In Bygate, M. et. al.(1994).*Grammar and the Language*. Prentice Hall International,U.K.

63. Greenbaum (1986) In Bygate, M. et. al. (1994) *Grammar and the Language*. Prentice Hall International, U.K.
64. Khan, M. Rizwan (2005). *Policy and Provision for ESL. In India's Higher Education : An Empirical Case Study Of 'Needs' and 'Means' an Analysis at Aligarh Muslim University*. Natraj Publishing House,Kernal,India.
65. Driven, R. (1986) *Pedagogical Grammar*. In *State of the Art-Article*, published by University of Duisburg, Federal Republic of Germany.
66. Driven, R. (1986) *Pedagogical Grammar*. In *State of the Art-Article*, published by University of Duisburg, Federal Republic of Germany.
67. R. Dirven (1990). *Pedagogical Grammar*. Language Teaching, Vol.23, No.1, 1-18.
68. West ,Michael. (1952). *How much English Grammar?*. In W.R. Lee (1967) 'ELT SELECTIONS-1,' Articles from *English Language Teaching*, Oxford University Press. London.
69. Hannan (1989) In Nuchiengman,Yawalak. (1997) .TESOL. Bulletin, Vol. 10. No-2 August,1997, Thailand.
70. Nuchiengman, Yawalak. (1997) .TESOL. Bulletin, Vol. 10. No-2 August, 1997, Thailand.
71. Garner, M. (1989). *Grammar; Warts and All* (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed.) River Seine. Melbourn, Australia
72. Lewis,M. (1986). *The English verb:An Exploration of Structure and Meaning*. Language Teaching Publication. U.K.
73. Kohli, A.L. (1999) *Techniques of teaching English* (rept.) Dhanpat Rai Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd., New Delhi.
74. Kohli, A.L. (1999) *Techniques of teaching English* (rept.) Dhanpat Rai Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd., New Delhi.

75. West, Michael. (1952). *How much English Grammar?*. In W.R. Lee (1967) 'ELT SELECTIONS-1,' Articles from *English Language Teaching*, Oxford University Press. London.
76. CIEFL 1995) *Teaching Grammar*, Block-1, Unit-1, CIEFL, Hyderabad, INDIA.

# **CHAPTER – 5**

## **CHAPTER - 5**

### **CONCLUSION**

#### **SUMMARY, PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR THE FURTHER RESEARCH**

##### **5.0 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter presents 'a summary of the present study,' the conclusions obtained from the observations of the grammar debate; and 'some pedagogical implications'. It also recommends 'some suggestions for further research.'

##### **5.1 SUMMARY**

In the present study it was found that grammar since its origin has been a favourite subject of study with the civilizations through the centuries. In the beginning while it was studied as a part of philosophy, logic and rhetoric, later in the name of Pedagogy – the teaching of grammar almost became synonymous to teaching of language. Such a lasting and dominant role of grammar in the area of language learning and teaching has been possible only because of a series of theorization and point of views by linguists and grammarians over a long period of time. In the previous chapters, it was observed that grammar has been debated and perceived differently by different phases of time under the influence of existing concepts, conventions and theories propounded by so many grammarians and linguists of the world.

For the sake of convenience the present thesis was divided into five chapters. The chapterwise summary of the present study is given below:

The first chapter is an attempt to look into the raging grammar debate that led to the emergence of the debate. The chapter discusses 'the significance of the study', 'the rationale of the study', and also delves into 'the research methodology.' However, the main focus of the chapter is to introduce the grammar debate. It highlights the manner in which the great grammar debate evolved through the coming of linguistics. This chapter gives a view into the organization of the study and at the same time gives a logical approach to the study.

The second chapter presents 'the origin and development of grammar through the ages'. In this chapter a historical overview of the major contribution regarding grammar from the ancient age upto the modern linguistics is made. The discussion takes into consideration the origin of the term 'grammar' and its later expansion as a discipline of studies in various civilizations of the world through centuries.

In the third chapter attempts to discuss the grammar debate at the philosophical level. It was observed that in ancient Greece the grammarians, relations and philosophers in the initial phase of grammar studies discussed and debated on the issues pertaining to the origin and nature of language. The Greeks studied grammar as a part of logic and philosophy and mainly propagated to maintain its sanctity and purity. The same was the belief for all the classical languages. Though the aspect of irregularity in language came latter, they also thoroughly debated on language being a part and parcel of nature or as an entity governed by convention.

The philosophies, concept, theories and the grammatical rules of their language were thoroughly discussed and debated by the Romans too. But the grammar studies were formalized by the Romans for the practical purposes of teaching the Latin language. Gradually grammar was considered as a part of rhetoric till the end of medieval age in Europe when Renaissance arrived and various vernacular languages of

Europe started emerging at local levels. But Latin dominated the European countries for centuries as the language of the Church. By 17<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup> century Britain's imperialism led to the expansion of English language in its great literary tradition, especially for administrative and business purposes. Looking these historical perspectives one can easily realize that the development of grammar studies of the vernacular languages of Europe, including English, were developed under the influence of Latin Modals.

The Nineteenth century witnessed the emergence of new revolutionary ideas and philosophies that brought a change in the perspective of grammar studies. Languages and then grammatical rules were freshly defined and categorized. Though by the Nineteenth century many books pertaining to grammar had been developed, Ferdinand de Sassure came up with his new concepts of language and its structure. His concepts of 'langue' and 'parole', 'synchronic' and 'diachronic' and 'syntagmatic' and 'paradigmatic' introduced a new outlook to grammar studies and attracted many followers. The idea of 'structuralism' propounded by De Sassure was later extended by Bloomfield and Noam Chomsky. Though they followed the 'structural school', they also came up with their original and philosophical points of view about language and grammar.

The linguists and grammarians who looked language not merely as a set of rules, rather they came to believe that languages have to perform certain roles, function in the society. Hence, the concept of linguistic competence as propounded by Chomsky which was later extended by Dell Hymes with a name of 'communicative competence' which was supported and strengthened by the list of language functions provided by Halliday and other theories such as 'discourse analysis and 'pragmatics.'

Hence, the present chapter highlights the arguments and counter arguments at philosophical level that consolidated and helped in developing the deep line of grammar/language studies, which was basically promised on the studies developed by the Greek masters.

The fourth chapter highlights the grammar debate at the pedagogic level. The terms 'grammar' and 'pedagogic grammar' have been defined afresh, keeping in mind the recent dichotomies in grammar teaching. An attempt has been made to discuss aspects pertaining to grammar such as 'Traditional vs Modern', 'prescriptive vs descriptive', 'correctibility vs acceptability', 'the concept of word classes', 'form and function', 'use and usage', 'inductive and deductive approaches'. One section of each, this chapter has been specified to discuss 'the components of pedagogic grammar' and 'the place of grammar in ELT Methods'.

This chapter finally discusses the debate on the relevance of grammar teaching in ELT. The main purpose of this chapter is to compile the debatable issues that arrived especially after the emergence of modern linguistics with regards to pedagogic grammar. It was found that grammar has always been a part and parcel of a language teaching programme, be it the phase of structuralism or that of communicative approach. The recent trends have certainly bridged the scope and use of grammatical items in the language courses as well as in the teaching and learning methodology. The last couple of decades have especially emphasized on the innovative role of the teachers and the importance of functional grammar.

This chapter provides a wholesome picture of the debatable issues and suggests for bridging the gap between the various controversies at pedagogic level.



The present one – i.e. chapter five – ends with ‘Summary’, ‘Implications’ and ‘Suggestions’ for the further research.

## **5.2 PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS**

The findings of the present study have led to the following pedagogical implications.

Since this thesis discusses the origin and development of grammar, it can be used for awareness raising among the learners and researchers for better understanding of the discipline. It also becomes interesting because of some fact-files relating ‘who’, ‘what’ and ‘when’ of grammar. This aspect of history of grammar can be used by teachers to make their grammar class interesting.

Secondly, there are so many concepts, conventions, practices and believes that we still discuss and even practice. And answer to such aspect can be found in the present study in the form of grammar debates.

Thirdly, the discussion on ‘grammar debate at philosophical level’ can help both the learners and the facilitators in order to get at a clear understanding of the basic concepts, philosophies and theories of grammar.

The study of grammar debate at pedagogic level would especially help the teachers, teacher trainers, material producers and even the syllabus designers in determining the extent, status, role and relevance of grammar teaching in the language programme.

Last but not the least the present study can be of much interesting especially for the students of post-graduate and research levels and also for young teachers.

### **5.3 SUGGESTIONS FOR THE FURTHER RESEARCH**

In our society grammar as a subject has always attracted criticism and controversy for it being boring, difficult, demotivating and what not. The present study as reflected that academically too grammar as perennially been a subject of severe debates. Even today much of the controversies in language teaching or otherwise are caused due to lack of agreement between individuals or groups.

One unfortunately that grammar has experienced over the centuries that it hardly could have a consensus among grammarians or even teachers regarding the purpose, extent, scope or the content of grammar teaching. One theory is often seen to be argued and debated against the other; rejecting one against the other, as if only the new one is correct and the old one has been a mistaken actively that the world was engaged in. Such a shift in theories belief and arguments can be seen most frequently taken place since the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Though some grammarians and linguists did try to minimize the debate, but such efforts were not even heard of in the teaching and learning situations. One can easily find students and teachers appreciating the new one and ruthlessly rejecting the whole one.

Since the present study makes a wholesome review of the grammar debate at both philosophical and pedagogic level in historical and ideological perspectives, it can be used as a wholesome and complete backdrop for further studies in this area. One such area can be sorting out the useful aspects of the old and new theories of language learning and teaching which can be used in developing a course that will satisfy the teachers of different followings teaching English in different corners of the world.

Further research can also be made to develop a course that could bridge the gap between those aspects that have been reasons for grammar debate especially at pedagogic level.

For such a research learners, teachers, teacher trainers, material producers, and even syllabus designers are need to be involved to incorporate the actual learners' needs of the students.

# **BIBLIOGRAPHY**

## **BIBLIOGRAPHY**

Allen, H.B. (1971) *Readings in Applied Linguistics*, Appleton Century Crofts, New York.

Allerton, D.J. (1979) *Essential of Grammatical Theory: A Consensus of Syntax and Morphology*, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London.

Anderson, Lars G., and Peter Trudgill.(1990) "*Bad Language*." In "The Great Grammar Debate". Part-II by Mimi Rothschild. The Jubilee Academy, The Premier Pre K-12 Christian Homeschooling Academy.

Benveniste, E. (1971) *Problems in General Linguistics*. In IGNOU (2002) *Aspects of Language: What is Language?* MEG-4, Block-I, IGNOU, New Delhi.

Bess and Porquier (1988) In Dirven, R. (1986) *Pedagogical Grammar*. In *State of the Art-Article*, published by University of Duisburg, Federal Republic of Germany.

Bloomfield, L. (1933) *Language*, Holt Rinehart & Winston, London.

Bloomsbary's *Concise English Dictionary* (2005).

Borner, W. & K, Vogel. (1976). *Zum Verhaltnis Von Wissenschaftlicher und Pedagogischer Grammatik in der Fremdsprachenlehre*. In W. Borner and K. Vogel (Eds.) *Franzosisch Lehren und Lernen*, 7-39, Kronberg/ Ts: Scriptor.

Brown D.H. (1987) *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*, Englewood Cliffs, Prentice-Hall, New Jersey.

Cameron, Deborah. (1995) "*Verbal Hygiene*" In "The Great Grammar Debate". Part-I by Mimi Rothschild. The Jubilee Academy, The Premier Pre K-12 Christian Homeschooling Academy.

Cawley, Frank (1957) In Kohli, A.L (repnt.) (1999) *Techniques of Teaching English*, Dhanpat Rai Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd. New Delhi India.

Chalker, S.S. (1990) *Pedagogical Grammar : Principles and Problems* (Ed.). In Bygate, M. et. al.(1994) *Grammar and the Language*, Prentice Hall International, U.K.

Chomsky, N. (1957) *Syntactic Structures*, Mouton, New York.

Chomsky, N. (1965) *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

CIEFL (1995) *Modern English Grammar and Usage*. Block-1, Unit-1, CIEFL, Hyderabad, India.

CIEFL (1995) *Modern English Grammar and Usage*. Block-1, Unit-2, CIEFL, Hyderabad, INDIA.

CIEFL (1995) *Modern English Grammar and Usage*. Block-1, Unit-3, CIEFL, Hyderabad, INDIA.

CIEFL 1995) *Teaching Grammar*, Block-1, Unit-1, CIEFL, Hyderabad, INDIA.

Collinge, N.E. (Ed.), (1990) *Special Aspects of Language: Encyclopedia of Language*, Routledge, London.

Corder, S. Pit (1974) *Pedagogical Grammar or the Pedagogy of Grammar?* In S.P Corder & E. Roulet (Eds.), 167-73.

Corder, S. Pit (1975) In Bygate, M. et. al. (1994) *Grammar and the Language*. Prentice Hall International, U.K.

Corder, S. Pit (1993) *Introducing Applied Linguistics?* Penguin Books, London.

Crystal, David (1997) *The Cambridge Encyclopaedia of Language*. 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, Cambridge University Press, U.K

- D. Larsen-Freeman (2004) *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching*, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, Oxford University Press, New Delhi. India.
- Diller, Karl C. (1978) *The Language Teaching Controversy*. In Larsen-Freeman, D (2004) *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching*, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, Oxford University Press, New Delhi, India
- Dineen, F.P. (1967) *An Introduction to General Linguistics*, 5<sup>th</sup> edition, Holt Rinehart and Winston, New York.
- Dirven, R. (1986) *Pedagogical Grammar*. In *State of the Art-Article*, published by University of Duisburg, Federal Republic of Germany.
- Dirven, R. (1990) In Bygate, M. et. al. (1994) *Grammar and the Language*. Prentice Hall International, U.K.
- Dirven, R. (1990). *Pedagogical Grammar*. *Language Teaching*, Vol.23, No.1, 1-18.
- Dykema, Karl W. (1961) *Where Our Grammar Came From?* In Pattersson, Nancy G. (1999) "The Role of Grammar in the Language Arts Curriculum," (<http://www.msu.edu/user/patter90/grammar.htm>).
- Fasold, R.W. (1984) *Sociolinguistics of Society*, Basil Blackwell, Oxford.
- Finegan, Edward (1980) *Attitudes toward Language usage*. In "The Great Grammar Debate". Part-I by Mimi Rothschild. The Jubilee Academy, The Premier Pre K-12 Christian Homeschooling Academy: ([http://www.thejubileeacademy.org/articles/academic\\_resources/reading/the\\_great\\_grammar\\_debate/](http://www.thejubileeacademy.org/articles/academic_resources/reading/the_great_grammar_debate/))
- Francis, W.N. (1954) *Revolution in Grammar*, Quarterly Journal of Speech, cited by Charles, Longman, London.
- Garner, M. (1989) *Grammar; Warts and All*, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, River Seine, Melbourn, Australia.

- Gleason, H.A. (1965) *Linguistics and English Grammar*, Holt, Rinehart, New York.
- Greenbaum, S. (1986) In Bygate, M. et. al. (1994) *Grammar and the Language*, Prentice Hall International, U.K.
- Greenbaum, S. (1987) In Bygate, M. et. al. (1994) *Grammar and the Language*, Prentice Hall International, U.K.
- Greenbaum, S. (1987) *Reference grammars and Pedagogical grammars*, World Englishes, 6, 3, 191-7
- Grice, H.P. (1975) *Logic and Conversation*. In Deborah schiffrin (rpnt.), (2005) *Approaches to Discourse: Language as Social in Interaction*, Blackwell, U.K.
- Gupta R.S, and Kapil Kapoor (Eds.), (1991) *English in India: Issues and Problems*, Delhi Academic Foundation, Delhi.
- Gurrey, P. (1961) *Teaching English Grammar*, Longman Publication, London.
- Halliday, M.A.K. (1973) *Explorations in the Functions of Languages*, Arnold.
- Hannan (1989) In Nuchiengman, Yawalak. (1997) TESOL Bulletin, Vol. 10, No. 2, August, 1997, Thailand.
- Hockett, Charles F. (1958) *A Course in Modern Linguistics*, Macmillan, New York.
- Howatt, A.P.R. (1984) *History of English Language Teaching*, Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- Huddleston, R. (1984) *Introduction to the grammar of English*, Cambridge University Press, Great Britain.
- Hurtung, Charles (1962) The Persistence of Grammar. In Allen, H.B (1964), *Readings in Applied Linguistics*, Appleton-Century Craft, New York.



- Hymes, D.H. (1974) *Foundations of Sociolinguistics: An Ethnographic Approach*, University of Pennsylvania Press.
- IGNOU (2002) *Aspects of Language: What is Language?* MEG-4, Block-I, IGNOU, New Delhi.
- Jespersen, O. (1924) *The Philosophy of Grammar*, Allen & Unwin.
- Jindal, D.V. and Syal Pushpinder (1998) *An Introduction to Linguistics, Language, Grammar and Semantics*, by Prentice-Hall of India Pvt. Limited, New Delhi, India.
- Jindal, D.V. and Syall Pushpinder (1998) *An Introduction to Linguistics: Language Grammar and Semantics*, Prentice-Hall of India, Pvt. Ltd. New Delhi, India.
- Jospersen, O. (1921) *A Modern English Grammar on Historical Principles*, Allen and Unwin, London.
- Jospersen, O. (1924) *The Philosophy of Grammar*, Allen and Unwin, London.
- Kassabgy, N. et al. (2004) *Contrastive Rhetoric: Issues, Insights and Pedagogy*, The American University in Cairo Press, Cairo, Egypt.
- Khan, M. Rizwan (1999) *Policy and Provision for ESL. In India's Higher Education: An Empirical Case Study Of 'Needs' And 'Means' Analysis*, Natraj Publishing House, Karnal, India.
- Kittson, E.C. (1920) *Language Teaching*. In Kohli, A.L (1999) (repnt.) *Techniques of Teaching English*, Dhanpat Rai Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd., New Delhi, India.
- Kohli, A.L. (1999) *Techniques of Teaching English*, 9<sup>th</sup> revised edition, Dhanpat Rai & Sons, New Delhi.
- Krishnaswamy, N. & T. Sriraman (1995) *Teaching Spoken English and Communication Skills*, T.R. Publishers, Madras.

Landau, Sidney I. (Ed.), (1978) *Webster Illustrated Contemporary Dictionary*, Encyclopaedic edition, JG Ferguson Publishing Co., International Edition.

Leech, Geoffrey et al. (1982, rpt. 1983) *English Grammar for Today*, Macmillan, London.

Lewis, M. (1986) *The English verb: An Exploration of Structure and Meaning*, Language Teaching Publication. U.K.

Lyons, J. (2002) *Language and Linguistics: An Introduction*, Cambridge University Press, New York.

Malmkjaer, Kirsten (Ed.), (1991) *The Linguistics Encyclopaedia*, Routledge, London.

McArthur, Tom (1991) *A Foundation Course for Language Teachers*, 5<sup>th</sup> edition, Cambridge University Press, Great Britain.

McHenry, Robert (Ed.), (1993) *The New Encyclopaedia Britannica*, 15<sup>th</sup> edition, Vol. 5, Encyclopaedia Britannica, Inc., Chicago.

*Merriam-Webster's Collegiates Dictionary* (2001) 10<sup>th</sup> edition by *Encyclopaedia Britannica* (India) Pvt. Ltd., Merriam-Webster Incorporated.

Milroy, James, and Milroy, Lesley (1991) *Authority in Language*. In "The Great Grammar Debate", Part-I by Mimi Rothschild, The Jubilee Academy, The Premier Pre K-12 Christian Homeschooling Academy: ([http://www.thejubileeacademy.org/articles/academic\\_resources/reading/the\\_great\\_grammar\\_debate/](http://www.thejubileeacademy.org/articles/academic_resources/reading/the_great_grammar_debate/) ).

Mindt, D. (1981) *Linguistische Grammatik, didaktische Grammatik und Padagogische Grammatik*, Neusprachliche, Mitteilungen, **34**, 28-35.

Nagraj, Geeta (1996) *English Language Teaching: Approaches, Methods; Techniques*. Oriental Longman Ltd, Calcutta, India.

- New Webster's Dictionary and Thesaurus and Medical Dictionary* (1991), Book Essentials Inc. New York
- Nida, E.A. (1960) *A Synopsis of English Syntax*. In Corder, S. Pit (1993) *Introducing Applied Linguistics?* Penguin Books, London.
- Nuchiengman, Yawalak (1997) *TESOL Bulletin*, Vol. 10, No. 2, August 1997, Thailand.
- Nunberg, Geoffrey (1983) *The Atlantic Monthly*, December; *The Decline of Grammar*, Volume 252, No. 6; Pages 31-46. In "The Great Grammar Debate", Part-I by Mimi Rothschild, The Jubilee Academy, The Premier Pre K-12 Christian, Homeschooling Academy.
- O' Grady et al. (1993) *Contemporary Linguistics: An Introduction*, St. Martin's Press, New York.
- Odlin, Terence (1994) *Perspectives on Pedagogical Grammar*, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, Cambridge University Press, U.K.
- Palmer, F. (1963) *Grammar*, Pelican.
- Palmer, F.R. (1971) *Grammar*, Penguin, Harmondsworth.
- Peccei, J. S. (1999). *Pragmatics: Foreign Language Teaching and Research*, Routledge, London.
- Quirk, Randolph et al. (1985) *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*, Longman, London.
- Ramjiwale, S. (1999) *Elements of General Linguistics*, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, Vol.1, Rama Brothers, New Delhi.
- Richards J. et al. (1992) *Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics*, Longman, London.
- Richards, Jack C. and Theodore S. Rodgers. (1968) *Approach and Methods in Language Teaching: A Description and Analysis*, Cambridge University Press, U.K.

- Robins, R.H. (1967) *General Linguistics: An Introductory Survey*, Longman, London.
- Robins, R.H. (1997) *A Short History of Linguistics*, 4<sup>th</sup> edition, Longman, London.
- Robinson, Mairi (Ed.), (2004) *Chambers 21<sup>st</sup> Century Dictionary*, Chambers Harrap Publishers.
- Rothschild, M. (2006) "The Great Grammar Debate" in ([www.thejubileeacademy.org](http://www.thejubileeacademy.org)) The Jubilee Academy, The Premier Pre K-12 Christian, Homeschooling Academy.
- Sapir, E. (1921) *Language*, Harcourt, Brace & World, New York.
- Sassure, Ferdinand de, (1959), (tr. of 1 1916 work), *Course in General Linguistics*, Philosophical Library, New York.
- Stubbs, M. (1983) *Discourse Analysis: The Elements of Style*, Macmillan, New York.
- Synclair, J. (Ed.), (1995) *Collins Cobuild Dictionary*. Harpur Collins Publishers, London.
- Thakur, D. (1998) *Linguistics, Simplified: Syntax*, Bharti Bhawan, Patna.
- Thomas, O. (1965) *Transformational Grammar and the Teacher of English*. In S. Pit Corder (1993) *Introducing Applied Linguistics*, Penguin Books, England.
- Vavra, Edward (2004) Teaching Grammar as a Liberating Art (File: //A:\HPGTY.HTM).
- Verghese, C.P. (1989) *Teaching English as a Second Language*, Sterling Publications Pvt. Ltd., New Delhi, India.
- Verma, S.K. and Krishnaswamy, N. (1998) *Modern Linguistics an Introduction*, Oxford University Press, 7<sup>th</sup> edition, New Delhi.

Weaver, C. (1996) *Teaching Grammar in the Context of Writing*, English Journal, 86, 6, pp. 15-23.

Wehmier, Salley and Hornby A.S. (Ed), (2005) *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*, 7<sup>th</sup> edition, Oxford University Press, New York.

West, Michael (1952) *How much English Grammar?* In W.R. Lee (1967) 'ELT SELECTIONS-1,' Articles from "English Language Teaching", Oxford University Press, London.

West, Michael (1955) *Learning to Real a Foreign Language and Other Essays on Language-Teaching*, Longmans, Green and Co., New York.

Whitehall, H. (1951) *The Structural Essentials of English*. In S. Pit. Corder (1993) *Introducing Applied Linguistics* Penguin Books, England.

Widdowson, H.G. (1978) *Teaching Language as Communication*, Oxford University Press, U.K

Wilkins, D.A. (1985) *Linguistics in Language Teaching*, Edward Arnold, London.

William, M.F. (1965) *Language Teaching Analysis*, Longman Group Ltd., London.

Yule, George (1985) *The Study of Language*, Cambridge, Press Publications, Great Britain.

## WEBSITES:

([http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/grammar#Development\\_of\\_grammars](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/grammar#Development_of_grammars))

([http://encarta.msn.com/encylopedia\\_761558783/grammar.html](http://encarta.msn.com/encylopedia_761558783/grammar.html))

([http://ling.kgw.tu-berlin.de/lexicography/data/B\\_HIST\\_EU.html](http://ling.kgw.tu-berlin.de/lexicography/data/B_HIST_EU.html))

(<http://www.google.com>)

(<http://www.languageinindia.com/april2002/tesolbook.html#chapter2>)

(<http://www.msn.com>)

(<http://www.msu.edu/user/patter90/grammar.htm>)

(<http://www.perseus.tufts.edu/greekscience/students/jordana/logic.html>).

(<http://www.personal.ecu.edu/southardo/history.rtf>)

(<http://www.qflpc.com.cn/jxjzx/show.uspx?id=24&cid=13>)

([http://www.thejubileeacademy.org/articles/academic\\_resources/reading/the\\_great\\_grammar\\_debate/](http://www.thejubileeacademy.org/articles/academic_resources/reading/the_great_grammar_debate/) )

([http://www.thejubileeacademy.org/articles/academic\\_resources/reading/the\\_great\\_grammar\\_debate\\_-\\_part\\_ii/](http://www.thejubileeacademy.org/articles/academic_resources/reading/the_great_grammar_debate_-_part_ii/))

([http://www.thejubileeacademy.org/articles/academic\\_resources/reading/the\\_great\\_grammar\\_debate\\_-\\_part\\_iii/](http://www.thejubileeacademy.org/articles/academic_resources/reading/the_great_grammar_debate_-_part_iii/))

([http://www.thejubileeacademy.org/articles/academic\\_resources/reading/the\\_great\\_grammar\\_debate/](http://www.thejubileeacademy.org/articles/academic_resources/reading/the_great_grammar_debate/) )